The Nation.

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The Week.

WE have, during the past two years, at sundry times and in divers manners, asked various Pennsylvania newspapers and other good people of that State to tell us if they knew what the Philadelphia *Press* meant when it said, in 1885, upon Matthew Quay being talked of for the State Treasurership, that his nomination would "take the lid from off the State Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb." This has been an extremely important question ever since Mr. Quay became Chairman of the Republican National Committee and recipient of the vast sums for campaign purposes put into his hands by Wanamaker and others. But we have asked it in vain. The answer, we learned very soon, could have been given by at least 200 respectable men in Philadelphia and by the editors of various papers, including one of such high standing as the *Public Ledger*. But it never came, and Quay kept on growing in power and influence, and Wanamaker in piety, with this extraordinary "secret" in possession of a large proportion of the nominally religious community. The patience of some good men in Philadelphia was, however, at last worn out, and some weeks ago they put the damning facts of Quay's career in possession of the New York *World*, which printed them with substantial correctness. Unhappily, owing to the sensational way in which that paper is edited, its "revelations" do not make the impression on the public mind which in many cases they ought to make, and which in this case they ought to have made. In fact, the story fell rather flat on the public ear. But it ought not to have fallen flat on Quay's ear, or on Wanamaker's, or on President Harrison's. The President in particular ought to have been roused by it into burning activity. He ought not to have delayed one hour after it was brought to his notice in calling on Quay to sue the *World* for libel, or else cease all relations with the White House, and in calling on Wanamaker to say whether he knew of these things, and had reason to believe them true before he took office, and if so to take himself promptly back to his store. The chief charge against Quay, which has not as yet been denied by any one, is that he was guilty of more than one defalcation as State Treasurer, having taken out of the Treasury on one occasion $260,000, and on another $400,000, and used both sums, or a large part of them, in some form of gambling, and that he was helped by party friends, when discovery became inevitable, to make up the amount lost, at least in part, to avoid a great party scandal.

There has not been in the history of reform a happier discovery of a suitable Scripture text for purposes of argument or illustration than that made by Mr. Henry C. Lea in his open letter to the President on the subject of these revelations concerning Quay:

> "The heads thereof judge for reward, and the priests thereof teach for hire, and the prophets thereof divine for money; yet will they lean upon the Lord and say, Is not the Lord among us? None evil can come among us. Therefore shall Zion for your sake be ploughed as a field, and Jerusalem shall become heaps."

Could there be a more vivid description than this of the condition of the Republican Administration? Almost every word of it strikes like the knout and draws blood. Part of its extraordinary appropriateness comes from the fact that the present Administration was really started as a semi-religious enterprise. There was, before the President left Indianapolis, a farewell service in the church of which he was elder, in which the pastor addressed him personally, in the style of Bossuet to Louis XIV., and the audience dissolved in tears. Then there were the family prayers in the parlor-car on the road to Washington, to which Stove-Polish Morse drew public attention as a sign that there was no incompatibility between religion and politics. Then there was Wanamaker's great and much advertised Sunday-school activity in Philadelphia, and numerous newspaper pictures of the good man's rushing home from Washington every week to conduct the Sunday-morning exercises in the institution. Then Private-Secretary Halford started a Bible class, the news of which was telegraphed all over the country, and the New York *Independent* came to the rescue of all these good men, with invective worthy of Tertullian, when any one questioned the mode in which they had won the Presidency, or criticised the way in which they were carrying on the Government. We are not sure whether Clarkson opened with prayer each day in which he decapitated a hundred postmasters in order to show the world the falsity of the President's promises in his letter of acceptance, but we think it very likely. There appears to be hardly any form of hypocrisy in which this venal company have not been indulging, and there was no check to it until Bishop Potter let loose on the President, in Washington's pew, the honest wrath which so many good men were feeling. But it did not affect the President in the least. Why not? Because, like those judges and priests and prophets of whom the text speaks, he leaned on the Lord and said: "Is not the Lord among us? None evil can come among us." But they were mistaken. The Lord will not let people of this sort lean on him.

Samuel J. Randall died on Sunday after a lingering illness borne with great fortitude. He was a man of remarkable ability of the business (as distinguished from the debating or persuading) order. In a committee-room he was all-powerful, as an orator he made no mark. He had a strong character, which impressed itself deeply on those with whom he came in immediate contact, and it was fortified by unblemished personal integrity. Nobody ever accused him of corruption in its minor form. While helping hundreds to make fortunes through the legislation which he promoted, he himself lived modestly and died poor. But he nevertheless set a most corrupting example in politics, for he sat in Congress for years as the Democratic representative of a Republican district, on the unconcealed condition that he should steadily support Republican manufacturers in obtaining profits or in saving themselves from losses in their business through taxation. In other words, he served for years in Congress, nominally as a Democrat, but really as a Republican, doing his best to destroy and bury the old and well-established Democratic tradition touching both the tariff and the limits of the province of government, in the interest of its political opponents. It is difficult to know what name to give to a rôle of this sort without seeming to speak harshly of the dead. If such practices became at all common, they would, of course, not only make party government impossible, but destroy all confidence between man and man in political life. That such rôles are possible is largely due to the great mechanical difficulties in the way of debate interposed by the size and arrangement of the House of Representatives. Speech that will be heard is possible only to the stentorians, owing to the vastness of the space to be filled and noisiness permitted to those who do not care to listen. The result is to give great license to methods which, if they had to be explained and defended in close and sharp debate, would soon be confined to men of less honesty and less ability than Mr. Randall. As matters stand, the Democratic party has not only not lost, but has been delivered from a great hindrance and embarrassment, by his death. But it must be put to his credit that he was the determined foe of corruption and jobbery on a small scale and for individual ends, and he was largely instrumental in bringing about the defeat of the Force Bill; but whether the Republican or the Democratic party profited more by this, it would be hard to say. It would certainly have given the former a deadly blow had it passed.

It is long since there has been a year when the tide set so strongly in favor of one party in the local elections all over the country as has been the case with the Democrats thus far this year. The drift is most strongly marked in the President's own State. In the township elections two years ago, the Republicans secured 514 of the trustees and the Democrats but 490; last week the totals were only 398 Republicans against 608 Democrats. The Republican organs are trying to explain away all these evidences of popular feeling by the claim that, in the words of the Philadelphia *Press*, "local questions are always uppermost in these elections, and this fact was true to an unusual degree in the

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municipal and township contests of this year." But this theory is not accepted by such good authority as the Indianapolis *News*, an independent journal which supported Harrison, and which says: "Local questions and candidates were given special consideration, but the general result is due to the prevailing dissatisfaction of the people in Indiana, just as in other States, over a condition of things for which the Republican party, in its heedless adherence to discriminating and monopoly-sustaining legislation, is believed to be largely responsible. The lesson of the election is not alone to be found in Indiana, but it is made equally conspicuous in other States where there was voting yesterday."

The Democratic opponents of the secret official ballot will find little comfort in the returns from the elections in the contested legislative districts of Rhode Island on Saturday. It has been the custom in that State for several years for the Republicans to buy enough votes in these second elections to enable them to secure the Legislature, and thus put in the Governor's chair the man who had failed of election by the people. It is well known that Republican candidates for Governor have been "bled" more generously to carry a few of these elections than they have for an entire State election. The secret official ballot has made further use of this money unwise because unprofitable. It does not bring the votes any longer, for the men who take it cannot be followed to the polls to see if they keep their bad bargain. The result is that Rhode Island is likely henceforth to be permanently a Democratic State.

Ex-Gov. Long, Collector Beard, and other Republican managers in Massachusetts have conceived the idea of making suffrage for women in municipal elections a feature of party policy. In his speech at the conference which brought forward this plan, ex-Gov. Long said that the Republicans had no issue on which to go before the people of the State at the next election, and urged that they would gain strength as a party by taking up this cause. We observe, however, that the Boston *Journal* dissents very pointedly from this theory, and urges the majority in the Legislature not to be carried away by it. The truth is, that experience has shown it to be hazardous business for a party to urge an extension of the suffrage as a party measure. The Republican leaders in Congress gave the ballot to the negro twenty years ago, in the confident expectation that this policy would insure their permanent control of every Southern State; but it was hardly half-a-dozen years before every one of those States was in the hands of the Democrats. It is by no means improbable that if the Republicans in Massachusetts should give women the suffrage in city elections, they would find within a few years that they had only helped the Democrats to recover control of the city government of Boston.

A formidable petition has been sent to Congress from Massachusetts in favor of an increased appropriation for the work of the National Civil-Service Commission. It requests Congress to grant not merely the $53,000 asked for by the Commission, but also the additional sum needed for such extension of the system under the present law as the Commission recommend, and as, with the President's approval, they may be able to effect. The signers, who come from all the cities of the State and 171 towns, number 1,287, and include the Governor and the Democratic candidate for Governor, the Lieutenant-Governor and the Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, five ex-Governors, the Secretary of the commonwealth, the State Treasurer, the State Auditor and the Democratic candidate for State Auditor, six of the eight members of the Governor's Council, the President of the State Senate and all the Senators, five ex-Presidents of the Senate, the Speaker and 120 members of the House of Representatives, the Chairman and Secretary and 19 members of the Republican State Committee, the Chairman and Secretary and 18 members of the Democratic State Central Committee, the U. S. Collector of the Port of Boston and the ex-Collector, twelve ex-members of Congress, an ex-Secretary of War of the United States, an ex-District Attorney of the United States, and the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the State. No one who is familiar with Massachusetts can question the broadly representative character of the petition. If Congress ventures to ignore it, an additional and powerful influence will be added to those which are threatening to make Massachusetts a Democratic State.

The discussion in the United States Senate upon the Montana election contest is one of the most humiliating exhibitions of partisanship which have been made there in many years. Having decided to seat the Republican claimants without regard to the evidence, the Republican Senators take little or no part in the debate on the merits of the case. They absent themselves in a body for the greater part of the time, leaving the Democratic Senators to make their arguments to themselves alone. Probably this is the most agreeable course under the circumstances, for the Democratic arguments cannot be answered by anybody. The simple fact is, that the Republican majority has decided to "go behind the returns" of the Montana election, and seat two Senators who never were legally elected, and who only obtained their certificate by methods like those of the old Carpet-Bag Returning Boards. Day after day the Democratic Senators have set forth the truth in this indefensible performance with unanswerable clearness and force, and the Republican Senators are merely waiting for them to stop talking in order to vote as they have determined.

The country has grown accustomed to reckless displays of demagogism regarding the Chinese question, but the House of Representatives has recently passed a bill which is calculated to startle the most cynical observer. Under the pretence of amending the Census Act, the lower branch of Congress declared in favor of a new system of excluding Chinese more rigorous than anything heretofore suggested. It was provided that each Chinese person enumerated in the census shall be given an engraved certificate, to be duly numbered and registered in the census office, containing all the particulars necessary fully and accurately to identify such person; that this certificate shall be the sole evidence of the right of such person to be and remain in the United States; and that any Chinese person found thereafter in the country without such certificate shall be either imprisoned or sentenced to deportation. In short, under the guise of an amendment to the Census Act, it was proposed to pass an exclusive law of the most offensive sort imaginable—a law which would constitute an insult to the Chinese nation, and which would be admirably calculated to provoke reprisals upon Americans resident or travelling in China.

Fortunately there is hope that the country may be saved from the disgrace of such a performance. The representatives alike of American merchants and of American missionary societies in relations with China have sent to the Senate earnest protests against concurrence with the action of the House, and a brief discussion in the upper branch the other day indicates that they may prove effective. Indeed, the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations has already modified two or three of the most offensive provisions, so that, for example, diplomatic officers, merchants, students, and travellers are excepted from the operation of the law, and so that a Chinaman found without a census certificate may have the right by competent evidence to show that he is entitled to be in this "land of the free and home of the brave," even if the enumerator, through carelessness or design, neglected to note his presence. At the same time the Senators and Representatives from the Pacific Slope are outspoken against these amendments, and declare their firm purpose to secure the final passage of the law in practically the same brutal form that it went through the House; so that there is still urgent need for an emphatic expression of public opinion on the subject.

Efforts on the part of the House and Senate Republicans to come to an agreement in caucus respecting silver legislation are reported from day to day. The failure to reach an agreement thus far is due in part to the fact that the silver question is not suited to caucus adjustment, and in part to the fact that the differences of opinion in the two bodies are very decided. The Republican party has not put itself on any platform respecting silver which can bind the conscience or the vote of

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any member. The House members favor the Windom bill, as modified in the Coinage Committee. The Senators favor the Senate bill, or the Jones bill, as it is sometimes called. The former provides for the issue of Treasury certificates to any extent on the *deposit* of silver bullion at its market price. The latter simply continues the *purchase* of bullion on Government account, raising the monthly purchase to $4,500,000, but not requiring the coinage of the same. There is a marked difference between the two plans, although they will surely come to the same thing in the end—*i. e.*, a parting of company between silver and gold coin and a premium on the latter in the market. Which of the two plans would accomplish this the more speedily no man can say. But the Windom plan is, of the two, much harder to understand. It is complicated and obscure to the common mind. Therefore its chances of passing are not so good as those of the Jones bill, which will, however, meet some obstacles of its own in the course of parliamentary proceedings. There is no good reason for the Government's buying one kind of property and issuing paper money against it, and not buying another kind. Cotton, for example, would furnish as good security for Treasury notes as silver bullion. It fluctuates as little as silver bullion. Much might be said at this time in favor of corn in the crib. It is hardly possible that the Jones bill will get through both houses without having some amendment tacked upon it which will make it ridiculous and nugatory.

It appears now that all the talk about reciprocity in the Pan-American Conference—that is, all of *our* talk—dwindled into a general recommendation that reciprocity treaties be negotiated between the several countries of the American hemisphere, each making tariff concessions so that the peculiar products of each may be introduced free into all the others. It appears, also, that the particular negotiation that Mr. Blaine had in hand with the Argentine Republic was only a fishing excursion to see what he could catch. The American delegates, Messrs. Flint and Coolidge, when asked by the Argentine delegates whether they spoke by authority of the State Department, said that they did not; and when asked whether they could promise the admission of wool free of duty, they said they could not. The Argentines then offered complete and full reciprocity on condition that their wool should be admitted free in our ports. All this is so characteristic of Mr. Blaine that we conclude it must be true. He wanted something to show for his winter's work, and he thought that it would be a good thing to show that he had tried to get reciprocity, but had been balked by the Argentines. In order to get reciprocity, two things were needed, viz.: the consent of the South Americans, and the consent of Congress. He fished in both directions at the same time. It would appear that he failed where he wished to succeed, and succeeded where he wished to fail. The Argentines were ready to meet him, but Chairman McKinley was not.

The Committee on Banking of the Pan-American Conference has recommended the establishment of an international bank, under a charter of the United States Government, to exercise all of the usual banking powers except that of issuing circulating notes. One of our morning contemporaries, discussing this matter, says that "the project proposed by the committee is that the International Conference should recommend to the Congress of the United States the passage of *a general act* under which an international bank can be organized." We do not so read the report. The despatch on this subject in the same paper says: "The Committee recommends . . . the establishment of an international American bank to be organized under a United States national charter, with branches or agencies in the several represented countries, and, as incident thereto, suggests to the delegates of the United States the desirability of submitting this report to the President of the United States with a view that, should he deem it proper, he may recommend to the Congress of the United States the enactment of a charter for an international American bank, for the benefit and enlargement of the commerce of the Americas." This says nothing about a general act, and it is very plain that a general act is not contemplated. What is contemplated is a special charter of an international bank by the United States Government. That Congress will grant such a charter is not to be supposed. It involves a radical change in our theories of government. The National Bank Act was passed as an auxiliary to the financial arm of the Government in the prosecution of the war, and the theory that the lending of money to the Government is an indispensable requisite to a charter under that act has never been abandoned, each bank being still required to have a certain minimum of its capital invested in United States bonds, whether it issues circulating notes or not. Congress might consent to some changes in the present law to bring it nearer to the views of the Pan-American Committee, but that it will give any serious attention to a special charter for an international bank is most improbable. In our judgment it ought not to do so.

An association has been formed in this country to get up a monster petition to the Czar of Russia in behalf of the Siberian prisoners, which, praiseworthy as its object is, is rather unfortunate in its phraseology. It sets out by informing the Czar that the end of his Government and ours is substantially the same—a proposition which, unfortunately, a great many people would dispute. There ought not to be disputable propositions in a petition. But the passage most open to criticism is that in which his mercy is invoked on account of the sympathy he showed the United States during the war of the Rebellion; and it is hinted that it was the presence of his war-ships "in our harbors" which prevented the interference of foreign Powers in favor of the South. All this seems to us sadly out of place. The one ground of interference in Russian affairs at all is our common humanity, which is shockingly outraged in the Russian prisons. All other claims to a hearing from the Czar on this subject are too trivial for mention. It makes no difference what the aim of his Government is, or what his father did with his little fleet during our war. When a sovereign allows a delicate woman to be flogged to death naked in the presence of soldiers, in spite of the protests of the prison doctor, without punishing or disowning the men who were guilty of such frightful barbarity, there is only one argument which civilized men can fitly use to him. If we petition him at all, we ought not to beat about the bush in search of excuses for addressing him, or cover our appeal with a discourse on political philosophy, or with reminiscences of by-gone civilities. It is as a man, and in the name of outraged human nature, he should be addressed by foreigners. He ought to be told, in courteous language of course, that any one who in our time permits, or connives at, or orders such atrocities is considered throughout Christendom an enemy of the human race.

The German Emperor seems to be revelling in the "glorious privilege"—which the French used to reserve for the rulers of their nation—"of astonishing the world." His mental as well as bodily activity is exciting alarm all over Europe, and is increasing the apprehension of some brain trouble which the family history would seem to justify. He has got rid of Bismarck in order to establish personal as distinguished from ministerial government; has stirred up the Socialistic question as it has never before been stirred up in any country in the world; appears to be disgusting his army by means of startling innovations, and sudden and irritating deliverances on questions of discipline and manners; and has managed to offend the Jews by excepting them from the proposal to admit officers of what the French used to call *roturier* extraction, to regiments hitherto reserved for those whom the Germans, by a droll abbreviation, call "born," *i. e.*, of noble birth. We doubt, however, if there is thus far anything in his conduct to inspire doubts as to his sanity. He is, as has been said, simply acting as a young Prussian lieutenant might be expected to act who found himself suddenly raised to a position of enormous power. In the last century his performances would have excited little or no surprise. What makes them seem queer now is the light which they throw on the hereditary principle when embodied in absolutism, and applied to the government of a highly complex social organization like Germany. The attempt of a heady youth to make use of it suddenly brings out all its absurdity, and will probably greatly hasten its abolition. Its only chance of prolonging its existence in any country lies in hiding itself, as in England, behind a responsible Ministry.

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THE FIRST AMERICAN CORRUPT-PRACTICES ACT.

New York has the honor to be the first State in the Union to put a law modelled upon the English Corrupt-Practices Act upon its statute-books. That Governor Hill, after obstinately refusing for three years to allow the State to secure a Ballot-Reform Law, should have consented to sign such an act, is one of the most inscrutable performances of his public career. In spite of his laborious constitutional objections to ballot reform, there is no doubt in anybody's mind that his real reason for opposing it is, that he and his most powerful party followers believe it would be a fatal obstacle to the political methods by which they have been in the habit of carrying elections. Yet the Corrupt-Practices Act, which was designed by its author, Senator Saxton, as a reform measure sequential to his Ballot Bill, is certain to prove to be a formidable if not fatal obstacle to those same methods. If its enactment had been accompanied by that of the Ballot Bill, the two measures together would have completely abolished the most pernicious evils of our elections.

By itself the Corrupt-Practices Act is certain to accomplish most salutary reforms. Its provisions, which are very minute and stringent, are aimed both against the briber and the bribed. The former is forbidden, either by himself or through any other person, to influence in any possible manner, either by bribery, loan, persuasion, promise of money or office or anything of value, the vote of another; and the latter is forbidden to submit to such influence either by voting in accordance with it or by refraining from voting. The specifications are drawn with great minuteness, and cover any possible form of bribery—influence, betting, intimidation, coercion, or restraint, or threats of reduced wages by employers by the use of "pay envelopes," and all the other familiar methods. Every point seems to be carefully covered by specific mention, except that of "assessments" upon candidates. That is not forbidden in terms, but it is not unlikely that the evil will be found to have been greatly diminished, if not practically abolished, by the requirement of sworn publication of all expenditures after election.

It is this requirement which is, in fact, the vital point of the new law. We have had on our statute-books since 1842 a comparatively stringent law against the improper use of money in elections, but it has been a dead letter, simply because there was no means by which a public accounting could be required of the amount of money actually spent. Now, such an accounting can be demanded in a manner which will make the corrupt use of large sums of money practically impossible without peril of detection and punishment, for the Saxton Law says:

"Every candidate who is voted for at any public election held within this State shall, within ten days after such election, file, as hereinafter provided, an itemized statement, showing in detail all the moneys contributed or expended by him, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election. Such statement shall give the names of the various persons who received such moneys, the specific nature of each item, and the purpose for which it was expended or contributed. There shall be attached to such statement an affidavit subscribed and sworn to by such candidate, setting forth in substance that the statement thus made is in all respects true, and that the same is a full and detailed statement of all moneys so contributed or expended by him directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election."

These sworn statements must be filed by all candidates for State offices with the Secretary of State, and by all candidates for local and municipal offices with the county clerks. Failure or neglect by a candidate to file them will be a misdemeanor, punishable by imprisonment in a county jail for not less than three months nor more than one year. Any elected candidate who is convicted of using bribery or any form of undue influence mentioned in the law, either through himself or his agent, not only will be punished by imprisonment, but will have to forfeit his office. Any voter convicted of accepting a bribe of any sort will be punished by imprisonment of not less than three months and not more than one year, and will be excluded from the right of suffrage for five years.

It is easy to see that the sworn publication of itemized accounts of every dollar received, the source from which it comes, and the use to which it is put, will be of enormous advantage to the cause of honest elections. These sworn statements will be open to the public, and the politicians may depend upon it that they will all be published in the newspapers. It will be possible, of course, so long as we do not have a law providing for the printing and distribution of the ballots at the public expense, for candidates to use considerable sums of money for those purposes. They can swear that certain sums were necessary for the printing of ballots, and certain other sums for the hiring of men to distribute them at the polls, but they will have to give itemized accounts in both cases. It will be very difficult for a candidate in this city who has been "assessed," say, for $10,000 or $20,000, to account for the use of all that money without making himself liable to some of the penalties of the law for undue influence of one kind or another.

There are several defects in the law which make it inferior to its English model. The most serious, next to not forbidding "assessments," is the lack of a requirement for sworn publication by campaign committees. This was embodied in the law which passed one house of the Massachusetts Legislature last year, and it would have greatly strengthened Mr. Saxton's measure. The Massachusetts bill not only prescribed a penalty for a failure to make a return, but also for a false statement in a return, which we are surprised to see is wholly lacking in the Saxton Law. In other respects, however, the latter is a much stronger measure than the Massachusetts proposal, and we are confident that in practice it will be found to work well in spite of the defects. Publicity of expenditures is a requirement of infinite possibilities for good. It would have been of great additional advantage if we could have had with it, as the English law has, a provision fixing a maximum of expenditure in all cases. In some recent comments upon the operation of this provision in the English act, we remarked that it had proved unnecessary because in practice the maximum had been found to be at least one-third higher than the actual expenditure. A valued English correspondent, who has the best of reasons for speaking intelligently upon the subject, assures us that what has kept the expenditure so low has been the fear in the mind of the candidate, or of his agent, of exceeding the maximum and of thus causing the former to lose his seat if elected. He says the "maximum limit looms largely in the agent's mind, and is the most useful of weapons to keep down expenses everywhere on everything." That is a very strong argument in its favor.

It will be seen that while the Saxton Law is not a perfect measure, it is a most important step in advance. It will be much easier to amend and strengthen it than it was to secure its adoption.

THE PROPOSED DUTY ON FLAX.

The howl that is now going up from the Republican manufacturers of New England is likely to cause us to forget that the tariff is being revised by and for its friends, but much information is being elicited showing who are the friends of particular duties and the reasons for such friendships. There has been an occasional suspicion that some of these friends were not entirely disinterested in their affection, and the present action of Mr. McKinley's Committee is bringing to light some dissensions among friends that are distressing. The proposal of this committee to double the duty on raw flax is an instance of this kind. At the series of hearings last January, in which the Committee allowed the manufacturers of this country to march up the hill in order to give them the privilege of marching down again, certain linen-manufacturers asked for free raw material, while others opposed any change in the duties, and even asked for some increase. The latter frankly admitted that the lack of any flax grown in this country suitable for spinning into fine yarn forced them to import their raw material, while they gave no sufficient reasons for their demands. As the Mills bill put flax on the free list, while the present Committee proposes to double the duty, a review of the subject will throw light on the character of the arguments that prevailed with them.

In spite of the tariff, no linen cloth, with the exception of a small amount of coarse towelling, is made in this country, and no flax fit for spinning into linen is grown here. Five or six large mills, and as many small ones, engaged in making thread and twine, represent our linen industry. The total capital invested does not exceed ten millions of dollars, and the annual product of five millions is about the same as the sum annually paid in duties on the imports of flax and linen. This meagre showing is not due to any lack of enterprise on the part of our manufacturers, but the historian of the linen

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industry can point to some forty or fifty mills that have sunk several millions of dollars in the vain attempt to make a profit in the manufacture of linen. The American Linen Company of Fall River, the Willimantic Linen Company, and the Sprague Linen Company, not to mention others, are monuments of failure, and largely from the difficulty in getting their raw material. The strength and durability of linen, however, make it superior to other fibres, and a duty of 40 per cent. enables a few mills to make shoe-thread and twine.

There is a great deal of flax grown in this country, especially in the Northwest. Considerably more than a million acres are annually sown with flax, and the crop of twelve or thirteen million bushels of seed brings in the market a dollar or more a bushel. The Western farmer enjoys a substantial protection for this crop in the duties on linseed oil and oil cake, the products of the seed. He uses flax as a first crop on new ground, sows the seed thinly, and the plants grow luxuriantly, without cultivation, bearing a heavy crop of seed at the ends of the many branches. When the seed is fully ripe, the flax is cut by a horse reaper, the seed threshed out by machine, and the straw is left in a tangled mass on the field to be burned; and yet fine-dressed flax is worth from five to seven hundred dollars a ton at the mills, and it is estimated that over a million tons of this Western flax are annually burned to get rid of it. The McKinley Committee is ready to be persuaded that a simple increase of the tariff will enable the farmer to market his flax at these prices, but it is no more possible to metamorphose this straw, which can yield only a short, coarse fibre, into the valuable product than it is to gather figs from thistles, and intelligent farmers know it in spite of resolutions by boards of trade.

Fine flax can only be produced by great care in its cultivation and subsequent treatment. The French or Belgian farmer rarely plants more than a half or a quarter of an acre in flax. The ground is thoroughly manured, and ploughed, harrowed, and spaded until the soil is as light and fine as in a market garden; the seed is sown thickly, and the growing plants must be kept free from weeds. This necessary weeding is generally done by the farmers' wives and children on their hands and knees. As the plants stand thickly together, the stalks grow long and slender, without branches, thus giving a fine long fibre and few seeds. Before the seed is fully ripe, the plants are pulled by the roots from the ground and carefully dried and bound in bundles. This much any skilful farmer, who is able to employ the necessary labor, can do, but the subsequent processes necessary to separate the marketable fibre from the woody pith and outer bark require so much technical knowledge and mechanical skill that the preparation of flax fibre is a trade in itself to be learned. The first process of "retting," by which the fibre is loosened, is accomplished by prolonged action of water on the straw. The success of this often disagreeable operation determines the value of the flax; if the action of the water goes on too long, or if it is stopped too soon, the fibre may be seriously injured. The flax must then be "scutched," or pounded, to remove the "shives" or wood, and this dirty process must be performed by the farmer, as the unscutched flax is too bulky for profitable transportation. The flax is then in a marketable condition, but before it is ready for spinning, it must be "hackled," or drawn over a steel comb until the chaff and tow are cleaned out.

The reader will now see why the American farmer does not grow fine flax when he has so many easier crops. The seed crop gives him sufficient profit, and the fibre can be grown only at the expense of the seed and at an outlay for manual labor that he cannot afford, even if he had the time or inclination to acquire the necessary skill to prepare the fibre for market. It is not surprising, therefore, that although the duties on flax have been considerably increased since they were imposed in 1861, the American farmer abandoned flax-growing as soon as cheap cotton fabrics could be had for domestic use. In 1860, with flax on the free list, the census showed a production of five million pounds. In 1870 the war tariff of 1861 on dressed flax was increased nearly 200 per cent., and the census of 1880 gave a production of only a million and a-half of pounds, and to-day we are entirely dependent on the foreign supply.

When, therefore, a manufacturer asks for an increase of the duty on his raw material under these circumstances, there is some other reason than pure affection for the tariff. In this case, so far as we can learn, the laws of trade have not made an equal division of the business of furnishing linen thread to consumers among the competing mills, and a few manufacturers think they see a chance for Congress to help them in gaining an advantage over successful competitors. The American flax-mills use, for the most part, only the "dressed line," and have comparatively little use for the short fibres or tow combed out in the hackling process, which they are sometimes forced to re-export. Certain manufacturers have intimate connections with large foreign mills which, of course, have ample facilities for buying the best flax from the farmers. These mills dress the flax, use the short fibres for coarse goods, and send the dressed product to their correspondents in America. The mills that rely on foreign purchasing agents or on small foreign connections, or dress their flax here, finding a market for the short fibres they are forced to import, seek to neutralize the advantage their competitors have thus by securing an increase of 100 per cent. in the duty on dressed flax, with a corresponding increase on the finished product, sheltering themselves behind the alleged interests of the Western farmer and American labor.

The consumers of linen thread are, however, beginning to cry out, and the shoe-manufacturers throughout the country are protesting against this scheme. This proposal, if it becomes law, will either increase the cost of shoes or the shoe-manufacturer will seek cheaper and less efficient substitutes in the form of cotton thread or metallic fastenings, already used to a large extent. In the latter case these friends of the tariff will have bitten off their own noses, and in any case it remains to be seen whether the new duty will be omnipotent to equalize all advantages in trade. If it does, these manufacturers may well cry, Great is the tariff, and McKinley is its prophet!

A LITTLE STORY ABOUT ORES.

ANY one who has access to the new tariff bill reported by Mr. McKinley will find under the *free list* a little, unobtrusive, three-word paragraph, "ores of nickel." These ores, under the existing tariff, are subjected to duty when imported of 15 cents per pound on the nickel contained therein, which is the equivalent of a little more than 35 per cent. ad valorem. This provision especially commends itself to all advocates of tariff reform, who believe that all crude substances, like ores, for use in manufacturing should be allowed free importation. But the question naturally arises, Why should ores of nickel be given a privilege of exemption from tariff taxes which is persistently denied to ores of iron; although nickel-mining is comparatively an infant industry which might profitably be developed in Arkansas, North Carolina, and other places, where the United States Geological Survey reports indications of ore, if only a sufficiently protective duty on the importation of ores of nickel were given and continued? Why is it, also, that one man from Pennsylvania can get an exemption from duty payments on the foreign ore that he wants, while hundreds of manufacturers in New England have not the ghost of a chance, under a Republican Administration, of getting a like exemption on a much more necessary foreign ore that they want, and are becoming impoverished from a denial of it? The answer is, Because the one man from Pennsylvania—Joseph Wharton by name—who has before openly confessed that he had fixed a former tariff to suit himself, has again, with Mr. McKinley's coöperation and permission, fixed the proposed tariff.

Mr. Wharton is a pioneer, in the United States, in the working and application of nickel. He fixed the tariff rates before 1883 so high that the importation of the ores and alloys of nickel was practically impossible. He has supplied the United States Treasury, at prices thus made artificially high, with metallic nickel required for the five-cent coinage; he has controlled the price in a large degree to American manufacturers who desired to use the nickel for the production of German silver and for nickel-plating; and he has made a large fortune thereby. It was stated on the floor of the United States Senate in January, 1883, that producing nickel for a number of years at from 50 to 70 cents per pound, he sold it from $2 to $2.75 per pound, "because there was then a scarcity of it in the whole world." Against these exactions the Connecticut manufacturers finally kicked, and, through the efforts of their Senators, Messrs. Hawley and Platt, the duties were reduced in 1883 from 30 cents on the ore and 20 cents on the

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alloys of nickel to the existing rates of 15 cents. Pending the action of Congress on this subject, Mr. Wharton published and distributed a pamphlet, in which the efforts of those who were attempting to abate the tariff on his pet product were thus characterized:

"It is pitiful," he says, "to think that the industries of our country should be at the mercy of legislators some of whom are actually hostile, and many of whom are so ignorant as to think that any lie of the busy agents of our national industrial enemies—mostly small barking creatures—should be believed when even not understood, and that the statements of a fellow-citizen should be disbelieved and cheapened simply because he is a fellow-citizen. It would be ludicrous, if it were not lamentable, that a tree bearing good fruit should be cut down by legislators" (*i. e.*, the Senators from Connecticut) "who know little more about the subject than a cow knows about Sunday. I have aided and supported the Government more than it has aided and supported me. I am one of the men who create and maintain the prosperity of the nation, and make it to survive the affliction of cranky legislators. We are the toiling oxen who make the nation's harvest, notwithstanding the gadflies."

Congress, however, reduced the duty, and to this extent Mr. Wharton's "tree bearing good fruit" was cut down. But the tree, nevertheless, continued to flourish, and the domestic demand and consumption of nickel has largely increased.

Nickel, however, is not here an abundant mineral. There are many indications of its presence in the rocks of the United States, but the only mine that has ever had any marked commercial value in this country is one owned by Mr. Wharton in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania; and so long as it was profitable for him to work it, he wanted the highest possible tariff on the importation of all competing ores and products, and Senator Platt of Connecticut was wicked enough to say, in the Senate in 1883, that Mr. Wharton closed this mine whenever an overproduction of its ores threatened to reduce the price of nickel to American consumers. The Lancaster mine was, however, a lean mine under any circumstances—its ores yielding only about 2 per cent. of nickel—and the discovery of a richer American mine was something greatly to be desired. This discovery has now been made; but, unfortunately for Mr. Wharton, the new mine is situated outside of the United States—namely, in Canada, at Sudbury, on the line of the Canadian Pacific Railroad—and Mr. Wharton cannot get its ores without paying the highly protective duty of 35 per cent., for the incorporation of which in our tariff laws in past years he has been mainly responsible. The boot being now on the other leg, Mr. Wharton, so far as nickel ores are concerned, has become a rampant free-trader. He has published a pamphlet setting forth in the strongest terms the great benefit that would accrue from a complete reciprocity of trade and a free exchange of all products between the United States and Canada; but as this event is in the dim distance, he has laudably initiated this good work by persuading the Ways and Means Committee to remove the existing duties on the import of the Canadian ores of nickel.

We do not observe, however, that the Committee propose to abate in any degree the protection now accorded to the products which Mr. Wharton will undoubtedly manufacture out of the Canadian free ores; and yet not to do so will result in increasing such protection from 35 to 50 or 60 per cent., with resulting profit to him which the consumers of nickel will probably not share. We have not noticed, either, that Mr. Wharton's voice has been raised in favor of the immediate free importation of Canadian ores of iron or copper in conjunction with the ores of nickel.

In short, what better example could be afforded of the sectional thimble-rigging policy that characterizes the reconstruction of the existing tariff by the Republican party through its representatives in the present Congress? If Pennsylvania wants anything, its demands are laudable and rational and readily granted. If New England asks anything of an analogous character, its requests are sectional, unpatriotic, and sure to be refused.

But perhaps we do Mr. Wharton injustice. If such is the case, we shall expect to see some of his friends in Congress, when the McKinley bill comes up for discussion, and the paragraph placing nickel ore on the free list is reached, rise on the floor of the House and move that ores of iron and of copper be added thereto. But from past experiences we shall rather expect to see Mr. Wharton rise up and in a forcible letter explain why such a motion would be wholly irrelevant, and the act of "the small barking creatures" that represent New England.

CONGRESS AND PATRONAGE.

THE special Committee of the National Civil-Service-Reform League appointed to inquire into the condition of the Federal civil service and the operation of the reform law, has made a report which is full of valuable and interesting information derived from unimpeachable authorities, being no other than the Congressional dispensers of patronage under the spoils system.

The Committee held its first meeting in Philadelphia on the 15th of February, and outlined its general plan of work, deciding to make inquiries, as early as possible, in regard to the system of Congressional patronage, and ascertain to what extent appointments to office were still controlled by members of Congress, and to what degree this patronage interfered with their proper legislative duties. It is in regard to this branch of the investigation that the Committee now makes its report. Mr. William D. Foulke of Indiana, the Chairman of the Committee, addressed to every Republican member of the House of Representatives a set of five questions, framed to bring out the facts. Of course, many Congressmen sent no reply whatever, and a number of others replied that they had not the data at hand to answer these inquiries, but some twenty-four answers were received which gave more or less completely the information asked for. These twenty-four answers constitute the most valuable part of the report.

The first question was, "How many offices are there in your district or elsewhere, where the appointments depend upon you?" The answers ran all the way up from "ten or fifteen fourth-class postmasters" to "about 800," the average giving about 250 appointments dependent upon each Congressman. "How many applications for office have you received during the past year?" was the second question, and here the answers ranged all the way up from "sixty," through such estimates as "about five hundred," "not far from one thousand," "about two thousand," and "at least eight or nine thousand written applications, to say nothing of the verbal requests," to the discouraged Congressman who replies: "It is impossible for me to say how many applications for office I have received during the past twelve months, but they have been almost innumerable." Averaging the reports of those who use figures, the Committee concludes that the number of applications for offices made to each Congressman is something over 1,700.

The third and fourth questions were with reference to the average amount of correspondence required for each such application, and the amount of time required to conduct this correspondence and attend to appointments. The estimates here vary greatly, one Congressman saying "perhaps two letters each," another "probably five letters each," and another "about a dozen letters each." "About one-tenth of my time," is the most favorable report made by any one, and from this minimum the record runs up, through "about half the time" and "eight to ten hours per day," to "all the time I could get." Two or three replies are worth quoting in full:

"During the past year more than three-quarters of my time in the day was given to attending to appointments, and late every evening (except Sunday) was given to my correspondence, with the valuable assistance of a stenographer, and even then I found it impossible to answer more than half or two-thirds of my correspondence."

"A low estimate of the average amount of correspondence which each of these applications requires on my part would be five in each case, or between four and five thousand letters in all. If it were not for the distribution of these offices, it would be easy for me to conduct my official correspondence personally, but as it is, a secretary is required, and the burden of the office greatly increased."

"One prolonged and continuous correspondence; the constant and entire time of both myself and secretary would not suffice."

The Committee conclude from these answers that it is not an extravagant estimate to say that "more than one-third of the entire time of these Congressmen (time which should properly be devoted to their legislative duties) is consumed in the distribution of offices," and point out that the condition of affairs in this respect does not seem to have changed very greatly from the time when Gen. Garfield, in his speech at Williams College, said: "One-third of the working hours of Senators and Representatives is hardly sufficient to meet the demands made upon them in reference to appointments for office."

The last question on the list was as to

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whether any elections had been held in the Congressman's district to determine who the appointee should be, and, if so, with what result. About half of the twenty-four report experiments in this direction, chiefly in the choice of postmasters, but a number of these report as the result "difficulty and dissatisfaction," "increased strife," etc. "They have resulted in bitterness and strife," says one Congressman, "and did more to engender animosities and ill-will between the patrons of the office than any other method I could have adopted for settling post-office contentions; hence I have not favored them, and henceforth shall discourage them where I can." An account of one such election is so amusing that it deserves to be given in full:

"I have held one election only under this Administration, and that had a most disastrous result. It resulted in several men losing their characters, one or two were turned out of church, and all was turmoil and confusion. Carriages were hired to bring voters fourteen miles distant, and citizens of another State voted. The doors of the polling-places were broken in. Democrats were allowed to vote. There were no safeguards about the polls. No oaths were required, and there was no respect for the election. The judges certified the election of one man, but sent a statement with the certification that the election was carried by fraud, the same name appearing upon both papers. The consequence was, I went outside for the postmaster, and chose a man who had not voted and took no part in the fight. He moved into town and took the office (worth not more than $150 per year); but they would have torn the election nominee to pieces if I had recommended him. I look upon these elections as a party disaster."

The Committee found plenty of evidence that Congressmen themselves are sick of the spoils system. "This patronage business is a great nuisance," says one; "I think that during the last twelve months the lives of most of the Republican members of Congress have been made miserable by the post-office controversies in their Congressional districts," writes another; while a third says: "I gave two hours a day to candidates for office all last summer, throwing open a room to them six days out of the week. Of course it was an imposition, but I do not want to be put in the attitude of complaining of my constituents so long as the system exists."

Every such showing as this is of value, because it throws fresh light upon the odious nature of the spoils system. Publicity is the worst foe to this as to all other abuses, and the best service which reformers can render the cause is to lay before the people such facts as this report contains.

FRENCH INTEREST IN BISMARCK'S RETIREMENT.

PARIS, April 3, 1890.

THE retirement of Prince Bismarck is surrounded with so much obscurity that it is hard to foresee its political consequences. For the present, this great event—for it is a great event, the greatest, perhaps, since the war of 1870—strikes us only on what I might call its dramatic side. Curiously enough, the feeling which is generally felt in France for the German Chancellor is a feeling of sympathy—a sympathy which is hardly confessed, as Prince Bismarck was one of the principal actors, if not the principal actor, in the events of 1870 and 1871. At the same time, rightly or wrongly, the French have always thought that, personally, Bismarck was not in favor of the annexation of the French provinces to France; that he would have been contented with a large war-indemnity. It is difficult to say on what grounds this belief has been founded. Bismarck, after Sadowa, did not take a single village from the Austrian possessions; he contented himself with political advantages: he established the Prussian hegemony in Germany, and forced Austria out of the Confederation; he showed no desire to add to the Prussian possessions any part of Bohemia or Moravia.

M. Thiers and M. Pouyer-Quertier, who were the French negotiators of the Treaty of Frankfort, were not unfavorably impressed with Bismarck. Thiers always thought that he had gained an easy victory over him when he succeeded in retaining for France Belfort and its territory, which commands the entrance to Alsace through the Vosges. A sort of legend was formed, in virtue of which Bismarck had, with regard to Metz and even to Alsace, his hand forced by the military party, by Moltke and the Emperor,

Since the war the chief object of Bismarck has been the preservation of peace. He has always shown the greatest courtesy to all the men, whoever they were, who have been in power in France. At various times he has proved his pacific sentiments by acts, for instance, in the case of the unfortunate Schnaebelé incident, when he did not hesitate a moment to give up a Frenchman unjustly and illegally arrested on German territory. A conviction had thus by degrees been formed in all French minds that the policy of Bismarck with regard to France was defensive, not offensive; he was even anxious to soothe the wounded feelings of France: he was desirous of offering to her political advantages, as long as they were not detrimental to Germany. He had played a friendly part in the events which preceded and which followed the occupation of Tunis by France. When King Alfonso of Spain became the object of a scandalous demonstration, on his arrival in Paris from Berlin, where he had been made honorary colonel of a regiment, Bismarck shut his eyes on what he might have considered an insult to his Emperor and to his country.

It would be idle to discuss here the claims and counter-claims of France and Germany to Alsace. Everybody feels instinctively that the settlement of this question is not definitive; it is mere hypocrisy to say that the tremendous armaments of Europe have no other object than the preservation of peace. It used to be said, "Si vis pacem, para bellum"; we can say now, "Si vis bellum, para bellum." At the same time, we should all like to put off the evil day. Precisely because we are so anxiously preparing for war, because we have made up our minds to bear its terrible consequences, we think we can wait for a good opportunity. A man who has resolved to commit suicide may enjoy life for a few hours more, and look eagerly on all he is willing to lose. The preparation for war is not at all incompatible with the love of peace. In our provinces, the peasantry remember well the sufferings of the war of 1870; the deputies who represent our rural population are obliged to express pacific sentiments. It is only in a few cities that chauvinism finds a few adepts. All these considerations will help to explain why Prince Bismarck, who was known to be sincerely devoted to the cause of peace, had gained in France a certain sort of sympathy, which could not be called popularity, merely because popularity is not unattended with a noisy and outward expression.

The French had come to the belief that Bismarck would never abandon power as long as he lived, and his life was in their eyes a guarantee of peace. Looking back on their own history, they had the examples of the fidelity of Louis XIII. to Richelieu, of Louis XIV. to Mazarin. It was only after the death of Mazarin that Louis XIV. said: "I will govern now by myself." The German Louis XIV. has not had as much patience, he has sent his Chancellor to Friedrichsruhe. It is no secret that the retirement of Bismarck is not voluntary; he never expected that his resignation would be definitely accepted—he thought that the young Emperor would, like his grandfather, write on it "Nimmer!" The ovation which he received, on his departure from Berlin, probably did not console him for what he must consider the ingratitude of his sovereign. To one of his friends he said, in a moment of anger (so, at least, I have heard): "The Hohenzollern made Prussia, I made the German Empire." This proud affirmation is justified by the history of the last forty years. History will always look upon Bismarck as one of the founders, if not as the principal founder, of the new empire. He has varied his means, the choice of his instruments, his alliances; he has never varied his object. He has worked, sometimes by diplomatic, sometimes by parliamentary, means, sometimes with "blood and iron," to give the German people the place which they ought to have in Europe, in order to guarantee the new German unity against all its adversaries. He has realized the dream of all German thinkers, what was in the heart of all the representatives of German culture, and his work was accomplished under the greatest difficulties.

Remember the old divisions of the German princes, the impotence of the Diet, the subserviency of so many courts to Russia. Bismarck found his first occasion in the Danish Duchies; he united Prussia and Austria in a common action. But this union could not long be maintained: the Empire of the Napoleons had been reëstablished in France and was a permanent danger to Germany. Bismarck succeeded in gaining the neutrality of Napoleon III. while he established the hegemony of Prussia, established a new confederacy, and excluded Austria from it. He was, however, after Sadowa, unwilling to seize any of the Austrian provinces; he was thinking already of the necessity of uniting some day the old empire and Prussia, so as to make a great Germany, and to preserve its influence in the valley of the Danube and in the peninsula of the Balkans. I will not dwell on the political events which followed the war of 1870. The new German Empire was founded, and Bismarck was employed in organizing it and in securing it against all possible dangers. So long as Alexander II. lived, the alliance called the alliance of the three Emperors was considered a sufficient safeguard. Alexander had remained neutral during the war, and his respect and affection for his uncle were unbounded; as for the Emperor of Austria, he knew that he had to choose between an alliance with the new German Empire or a total disruption of his own States. Austria is a composite empire; the German provinces can now remain loyal only if their German sentiments are satisfied, and they can only be satisfied if the Emperor of Austria and the German Emperor work harmoniously in the field of politics.

Things began to assume a different aspect after the death of Alexander. We have, ever since that moment, seen the development of the strong enmity of Russia towards Germany. So long as this instinctive feeling found expression only in literature, in the universities, in academic circles, it might be considered

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harmless; it became dangerous when Russia had for its sovereign a Czar more Russian than all the Russians, a complete incarnation of all the national feelings and aspirations. The Turkish war and the Treaty of Berlin put an end to the old alliance of the three Emperors. Russia thought herself cheated of the results of her sacrifices, not only by the arrogance of England, but also by the treachery of Germany. Ever since, Russia and Germany have been in a state of latent hostility. Russia has been like a sword of Damocles over the heads of the German people. Bismarck felt the danger. He showed great ability in finding a new ally in Italy, and in determining Austria to accept this new alliance. The Triple Alliance became the substitute for the old alliance of the Emperors, and year by year it was made more binding as the preparations of Russia became more visible. Thanks to the Triple Alliance, to the attitude of the Conservative Government of England, peace seemed assured; and now it seems as if a page of the book of history had been turned. Speculations as to the future have become vague and uncertain. Diplomatically, politically, a great change has taken place. If Bismarck had died, this sensation of uncertainty and almost of awe would not be so great, since death must come for every man; but we cannot help saying: "He is alive, and why is he gone—why is he gone?"

ITALY'S BURDENS UNDER THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

MANTUA, March 28, 1890.

"THERE is nothing which the European Powers could agree on to help laborers except the reduction of the huge standing armies. These enormous armaments constitute the only burden on labor which it is in the power of the governments to remove. . . . The occasion might be turned to good account if the small Powers were to join in a vigorous protest against the size of the German, Austrian, Russian, French, and Italian armies."

These pithy sentences, culled from the *Nation* of March 6, sum up all that is written or said, in Italy at least, about the Labor Conference now sitting in Berlin. Naturally, the Italian Government sent representatives, all men of profound economical studies—Senator Boccardo, Deputy Ellena, and the indefatigable director of the Statistical Department attached to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, Commendatore Bodio; all equally adverse to State Socialism (Cæsarian Socialism especially), and to truckling by the State to any sort or set of demagogues. But the act is simply one of courtesy to a young and friendly ally, and the instructions imparted resemble those given to us in our youth, "to be seen and not heard."

During the last twenty years, and especially since 1882, some excellent laws termed social have been passed to assist the various attempts of the working classes to help themselves—passed after long debates and careful precautions to avoid any appearance of class legislation. The one question which seems to meet with general affirmative sanction at the Labor Congress—the work of children—was debated for years in the Chamber and the Senate. We remember that Senator Rossi, protectionist, and notable for his industrial schemes for the working classes, was strongly opposed to legislation for the protection of children. But in August, 1886, an excellent law was passed, based on the reports of physicians and commissioners of health, showing that deformity, scrofula, chest and brain affections were greatly on the increase, and especially among the children working in mines and in manufactories. According to the new regulations, no child under fifteen should be allowed to work in unhealthy or dangerous trades or industries. Each parish was to furnish every child under fifteen with a ticket or book, to be filled up by the heads of factories or mines, setting forth the age of the children employed, with the health certificate of the parish doctor. It is shown by the recent inquiry made by the present Minister of Agriculture that of 8,257 communes, only 1,640 have in four years furnished children with these books, and that in unhealthy and dangerous occupations children of all ages are still at work. Night work was forbidden to children under twelve; here the protests of the silk-producing industries prevailed, the age was reduced to nine, and eight hours of work allowed. Other trades demonstrated that to take away the children was to stop the work of the adults. In short, though something has been gained, the law is deftly eluded by the masters of industrial establishments who can get cheap work from children, and by the parents of the same, only too thankful to add their earnings to the scant stock of the family.

Only during the last eight years have the working classes and their friends sought for any assistance from Parliament. Until 1882, the political suffrage was restricted to little more than half-a-million. The reform bill of January of that year extended the political vote to all male citizens who could read and write sufficiently to demand the inscription of their name and age on the parish registers. About two millions and a half were thus registered, more than double that number of male citizens above twenty-one years of age being illiterate. The champions of the temporal power abstained, obeying the order from on high ("Neither electors nor deputies"). In agricultural districts the few new electors took little part in the first general election of 1882; in 1886 they bestirred themselves in some provinces. During both, however, the workingmen of the cities availed themselves of their newly acquired rights, and sent up to Parliament Radicals, Republicans, and some bona-fide Labor representatives. Only one avowed Socialist was elected, by the way, Andrea Costa. In this Parliament we see for the first time the principles of coöperation represented and defended by men of different political opinions. These same men we find again present at the coöperative meetings and congresses, where they explain what has been attempted and achieved, and what they still hope to secure for the future, as, to pass over other essential points, the aid which the Government can legitimately give to the coöperative *laborers*—that new and most hopeful form of coöperation which, during the last few years, has taken such firm root in the Romagna.

The métayer system—that half-profit arrangement so admired by Arthur Young and J. S. Mill, and still prevalent in Tuscany—has rapidly declined of late years in the ex-provinces of the Pope. Whole families of once well-to-do peasants were added to the already too numerous list of day-laborers who, first serving as mowers and reapers, are compelled during the winter months to become hedgers and ditchers, navvies, etc. The enormous public works undertaken by the Government—new railroads, the redemption of the Roman Campagna, etc.—gave them hopes of better times; but the method of Government contracts blasted these. The contractors have a system of their own. When a contract is put up at auction at a certain estimate, one big capitalist often buys off his competitors, and, by bidding at a lower price than the Government estimate, gets the contract. How can he make ends meet? By paying the out-of-work day-laborers to do all the rough and heavy, unskilled part of the work during the autumn, winter, and early spring months, paying them in the Romagna 1 franc, in the Polesine as little as 4 cents per day, for seven or eight hours' labor. The turbulent, intelligent, energetic *braccianti* of Ravenna formed a society, their sole capital consisting in their *braccia* ("arms"), a wheelbarrow, a spade and pickaxe apiece. They were 303 in number, and managed to save a franc per month, forming a capital of $120, so as to pay the deposit for the first work intrusted to them. This they executed quickly and well, waging no war against proprietors or capitalists, nor even against their arch enemy the *appaltatore*—the contractor. Their efforts were admired, then assisted: the savings bank of Ravenna lent them money, then citizens took shares "without dividends"—King Humbert, it is said, to the amount of $6,000—the Government gave them work in the Agro Romano. Having gained net $2,000 by works for the commune of Ravenna, with this they set up coöperative stores, an ambulance, an economical kitchen to follow their hands from place to place where work was given them. During the mowing and reaping season, in order to avoid giving offence to land-owners and tenants who had hitherto counted on their "arms," they detailed off by casting lots as many as were required for these operations. During the winter they earned on an average 3 francs instead of 1 per day, and some saved as much as $40 during the year, after contributing their proper share to the reserve fund.

This special society of Ravenna has now more than $40,000 of capital, and consists of over 2,000 members. Other societies were immediately formed on principles more or less soundly coöperative. That of Budrio has many well-to-do citizens among its members, who lent without interest $8,000 as deposits, so that the laborers could at once undertake contracts for a large sum. But these voluntary loans will not always be forthcoming: they are objected to by many as opposed to the true principles of coöperation. So exertions were made by the coöperative deputies to get a little law ("leggina") passed which should enable the Government to contract with the societies themselves on the same terms as with individuals. An article inserted in the new law of State accounts settled the question. The State, provinces, and communes may now concede to cooperative societies of workingmen, duly registered according to the regulations of the (new) code of commerce, public works to the amount of 100,000 francs ($20,000) without preliminary deposits—the payments to be made every fifteen days, one-tenth of each rate being retained until the completion of the works and their approval by the delegate. Hardly was the law sanctioned when the societies doubled their memberships. In the Polesine, where enormous emigration seems scarcely to have lessened the numbers of the day-laborers, the radical members promoted the societies and obtained work. As in the Romagna, the societies pledged themselves to assist one another, not to wage war on fixed wages, to admit even a third of non-laborers, to elect a technical committee, etc. On the other hand, the distrust engendered by the agricultural disturbances in Mantua and the Polesine in 1886 had left an amount of friction between owners and laborers of the soil which it is well should be removed. The question of finding immediate work was soon

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solved by the coöperative society of Adria, which had assumed a Government contract including sundry works to be executed on the banks of the Adige at Ca Morosini in the district of Lendinara. Now to go and come from their work would have consumed the profits for the laborers of Adria; hence they ceded it to the society of Lendinara, sending their own president, a workingman, to superintend the work. Every morning at seven the men go in gangs to the banks; the work is paid so much per square metre; at twelve the work ceases and each man goes home to his dinner; then at two you will find most of them at work elsewhere, generally on contract for cutting and propping vines, digging ditches, felling trees, the ordinary winter occupations. Thus the district has few or no disoccupied laborers, and the weekly wages are often twelve francs, whereas in former winters they scarcely reached the half of that sum. Then, when the work is finished, there will be the 40 per cent. of the profits to be divided.

The country at the present moment is in a dismal financial plight. Land and income are overburdened with taxation: every article of common necessity is taxed. The rupture of commercial treaties has ruined many industries, banks have gone under, manufactories and industrial establishments failed; but, since the famous, or rather infamous, 8th of February outburst in Rome, 1889, there have been no violent disturbances, no demonstrations against the Government, no monster strikes or attacks on property. If Italy could be freed from the burdens of the Triple Alliance, she has uncultivated land enough for her surplus agricultural population, sufficient capital for the development of her industries and commerce. But, as the Prime Minister confessed yesterday in the Senate, more money is needed, more taxes must be levied. Hence his popularity of a year ago is on the decrease. Only when proposing a national monument to Giuseppe Mazzini, "the chief factor of Italian Unity in Rome," did the House vote unanimously. On all questions presented it is a house divided against itself. Possibly a dissolution is close at hand; but the electors well know that the new House must vote new taxes. Should the present Ministry fall, and so a Nicotera-Magliani Ministry succeed, the situation remains the same. Hence the resignation of Bismarck, the Labor Conference, have but one point of interest. The very question of peace or war is subordinate to that other question of general gradual disarmament. This peace armed to the teeth, say many, is worse than a short, sharp war; the present burdens are too heavy to be borne; any slightest addition would prove the proverbial feather on this most patient camel's back. Disarm! disarm! disarm! is the entreaty, the prayer of the people, addressed not to their own Government, which cannot back out of the engagements entered into by its predecessors, but to all the Powers of Europe equally concerned if not equally burdened. J. W. M.

P. S.—Even as I write comes the unwelcome news that the municipality of Rome, unable, as has been declared for months, to make ends meet, disappointed in its hopes of what the Government would (I should say could) do to help it, feeling the utter impossibility of filling up the deficit by fresh loans and still less fresh taxation, has resigned *en masse*. Thanks to the efforts of Baccarini and Menotti Garibaldi, the decision is suspended, but the *aut aut* of the Government is, "You must exhaust every effort to help yourselves before we can come to the rescue." The city of Naples also finds itself with a deficit of over two millions and a half. But how can the State, with its deficit of one hundred millions, with its ever-increasing expenses for war material, assist the provinces, the communes? The city of Milan, one of the wealthiest in the kingdom, has hard work to assist its disoccupied workmen. The entire population, rich and poor, aristocratic and ultra-democratic citizens, are straining their every nerve to help them; the King has just sent 10,000 francs from his own purse. But the fact is, that the utter stagnation in the industrial and commercial world cannot cease as long as the enormous burden of taxation continues to weigh on the entire country. The newly proposed tax on the importation of rice, added to the tax on imported grain, is a direct tax on the food of the very poorest, who, limited already in the quality of their food, must curtail the not too abundant quantity. But no legislation can alter these evils until the expenses are lessened by a third.

TOLSTOI'S 'KREUTZER SONATA.'

NIEDERDORF, TYROL, March 29, 1890.

WHAT are the legitimate bounds of realism? To what point is it permissible to describe in repulsive detail the hideous and unseemly things of this world, simply because they exist, when it is quite impossible to say what the effect will be upon thousands of people to whom such description conveys the first knowledge of the existence of evil? It has been proved that public executions, far from inspiring horror of the deeds which led to them, and deterring others from the commission of like deeds, through fear of the result thus presented, actually give rise to crimes copied after those which are thus brought to general attention. The same thing is true in the case of crimes which are minutely described in the newspapers. But books? On the whole, although a sensational realistic book may never reach as many people as an article published in the popular newspaper, it probably produces as much effect because of the weight and respectability which the binding and comparatively high price give to it.

One has occasion to reflect upon this topic rather frequently in these days of "psychological" romances; but it is not often necessary, I think, to meditate so seriously as one is forced to do over Count Lyoff Tolstoi's last story.

When I first reached Russia, in the autumn of 1887, I heard that Count Tolstoi was writing a new tale: it began on the railway, and a man murdered his wife, and it was to be of the searching psychological type exemplified by 'Ivan Ilyitch.' So much seemed to be known in well-informed circles. I asked no questions when I made the Count's acquaintance a year later. But one evening last July, during a visit which I made to Yasnaya Polyana, at the Countess's invitation, the Count spoke to me of his story as being near completion, and asked me to translate it when it should be finished. I promised, and inquired whether it was in a condition for me to read. "You may read the last version if you like," he answered, "but I would rather have you wait." His wife showed me sheets of the fourth version, which she was then copying, and advised me not to waste time in reading it, as it was quite likely that he might suddenly see the subject in a totally different light, and write it all over again from that point of view. So I read nothing, asked no questions, and waited, being informed from time to time that the book was progressing. How many different versions were finally made, I do not know, but this winter one of these versions began to make the rounds in Petersburg. The solitary manuscript flew rapidly from hand to hand. I was warned, however, that it or any copy from it would be imperfect, incomplete, and not approved by the author, who was at work upon the final version. I contented myself with the verdict of those who were too impatient to wait, and who had not been promised the first complete copy, as I had been. That verdict was, "Shocking!" "Beauties mingled with horrors," and so forth. It was said that it was not allowed to be printed—the usual cry; but, as there is nothing religious or political in it, its morality must have been the cause of the prohibition, if true.

At length I received the first copy of the genuine story (the second went to the Danish translator), with the information that, although the substance was nearly identical with that of the version which had already been circulating, and which was said to be in process of translation into foreign languages, the execution had been so altered that "not one stone was left upon another" in some places, while in others whole pages, and even chapters, had been completely rewritten by the author. My copy was corrected by the author especially with a view to translation, and was, therefore, to be regarded as the only one sanctioned by him for rendering into other tongues, and this version is yet unattainable in St. Petersburg.

Why, then, do I not translate a work from the famous and much-admired Russian author? Because, in spite of due gratitude to Count Tolstoi for favoring me with the first copy, and in spite of my faith in his conviction that such treatment of such a subject is needed and will do good, I cannot agree with him. It recalls the fable of his countryman, Kriloff, anent the man who borrowed his neighbor's water cask, used it for wine, and returned it impregnated with vinous fumes to such a degree that the unfortunate lender was obliged to throw it away, after using every possible means, during the space of two years, to expel the taint so that the water should be pure once more.

"Too frank and not decent," was one of the Petersburg verdicts upon this 'Kreutzer Sonata.' This is so true that, although thus forewarned, I was startled at the idea that it could possibly be beneficial, and, destroying the translation which I had begun, I wrote promptly to decline the task. It is probable that the author and his blindly devoted admirers will consider that I have committed an unpardonable sin. But they must remember that his "comedy," 'The Realm of Darkness,' although it was acted in private, in high Petersburg society, and in public in Paris, has never been translated into English, so far as I am aware, at least. I yield to no one in my admiration for and appreciation of Tolstoi's genius, as displayed in certain of his works. I tried to get American publishers to bring out 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karenin' in 1881, five years before American readers were treated to the mangled versions of those works through the French. They declined, and one noted Boston publisher said, with great frankness: "No one in Russia knows how to write except Turgeneff, and he is far above the heads of Bostonians." I predicted a change of opinion, and if I am now morally compelled to appear unfaithful to my own former admiration, my regret is certainly more deep and sincere than even the regret of those who merely repent their failure to grasp an opportunity for making money, or of those who, consciously or unconsciously, follow the literary fashion of the hour.

But I will turn to the book. After making

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due allowance for the ordinary freedom of speech, which has greater latitude in Russia (as elsewhere in Europe) than is customary in America, I find the language of the 'Kreutzer Sonata' to be too excessive in its candor. At the same time I admit that if that subject was to be treated in that way, no other language would have answered the purpose. I mention this first because it is the first thing which strikes the reader, and because it is also the special thing which hovers over the horrors of the tale with an added dread, and lingers long behind in the reader's mind, like a moral bad taste in the mouth. Next, the style and construction. The construction is good, as is usual with the author. The style errs in the direction in which all his books are faulty, viz., repetition. The unnecessary repetition of words or phrases occurs in his greatest works, while in the later, the polemical, writings, it has become greatly exaggerated. It forms a feature of this book, and although it gives strength at times, it is too marked on the whole. One must think that this tautology is deliberate on the author's part, since he is never in haste to publish uncorrected matter; but the result is harshness, which increases with every fresh work. Nevertheless, the book is well written. And the story? It is that of a man who kills his wife out of jealousy for a semi-professional violinist, who plays Beethoven's "Kreutzer Sonata" with her one evening.

The author begins by narrating how he is making a long journey by rail. In the compartment with him are a lawyer and a lady, masculine in appearance and attire, who converse, and a gray-haired man with brilliant eyes, who avoids all attempts to talk with him and utters a peculiar sound from time to time. A merchant and a clerk enter the railway carriage at one of the stations. A partly inaudible conversation between the masculine lady and the lawyer about some woman who has fallen out with her husband, leads the lawyer to remark upon the amount of attention which is being bestowed all over Europe upon the question of divorce, and to say that there was nothing of the sort in olden days. The merchant answers him that there were cases even in old times, but they were less frequent; and people had become too "cultured" nowadays. In the discussion which ensues, the merchant advocates the old-fashioned arrangement of marriages by parents, and strict government on the part of the husband, as most conducive to wedded happiness, alleging that love will come in due season. The masculine lady argues that it is stupid to join in marriage two people who do not love each other and then feel surprised if discord ensues between them, and that the day for such unions is past. The merchant maintains that the day for obeying the New Testament rule, "Let the wife fear her husband," will never pass away; that although unfaithfulness, which is assumed to be impossible on the part of the wife, may happen in other classes, in the merchant class it does not happen, and that the carouses of married men at the fair, which the narrator has heard him relating, and of which he reminds him, form a special topic which must be excluded from the discussion.

Here the merchant leaves the train, but the conversation is continued by the passenger with gray hair and brilliant eyes inquiring to what sort of love the masculine lady has reference. What is "true love," and how long must it last—a month, two days, or half an hour—when it has been defined as the preference for some one man or woman above all other men or women in the world? He contends that only in romances does this preference last for a lifetime, as per theory; whereas in real life it endures for a year, generally much less, and is felt by every man for every pretty woman; also, that this love is never mutual, and if it were, and if it lasted a lifetime on one side, it would not on the other. Identity of ideals, spiritual likeness, he does not admit as a ground for entering upon marriage. He gives a brief sketch of the manner, in his opinion, in which marriages are entered upon, winding up: "And the result of this is that frightful hell which makes men take to drink, shoot themselves, poison, and murder themselves and each other."

The lawyer, with a view to putting an end to the unseemly conversation, replies that "there are undoubtedly critical episodes in married life." Whereupon the speaker remarks: "I see that you recognize me. I am Pozdnisheff, the man with whom occurred the critical episode of murdering his wife." In fact, no one knows anything of him, but the lawyer and masculine lady change into another compartment as soon as possible, while Pozdnisheff offers to withdraw if his presence is disagreeable to the narrator. Finding that it is not, he offers to while away the night by relating the story of his life. I may remark here, in view of the above, that the author gives not a hint of his own opinion as to which is preferable, a marriage of love or a *mariage de convenance*, and also that some of the points suggested do not seem to be answered thereafter.

Pozdnisheff begins his tale with his introduction to evil at the age of sixteen. Shorn of digressions, his story would be brief. But the digressions attack many accepted views of things—or views which he says are accepted. The present order of society and life, modes of marriage, dress, and so forth, form the topics of these digressions. Pozdnisheff states that he has taken to analyzing the subject since his own life reached a climax in his crime. Many of these remarks I recognize as substantially identical with attacks on those subjects contained in all the author's serious writings. The sentence, "I never see a woman clad in ball attire that I do not feel like shouting, 'Police!' and ordering her to be removed as dangerous," closely corresponds to former utterances upon low-necked dresses and so on. He repeats former denunciations of higher education for women, but, astonishing to relate, instead of winding up with the moral that women should devote themselves solely to becoming the mothers of the largest possible families, he praises the Shakers because they do not marry, and declares that woman will only rise to a higher plane, cease to rule in underhand ways as an offset to oppression, and acquire her full rights, when virginity shall have become the highest ideal of womanhood.

I am tempted to a personal digression at this point. Count Tolstoi one day praised the Shakers in this manner before a table full of people. I was afraid to ask him his meaning, lest he should explain in detail, so I questioned his wife in private as to whether this new departure was not somewhat inconsistent with his previously advocated views on woman's vocation. She replied: "Probably it is inconsistent; but my husband changes his opinions every two years, you know." The explanation which I venture to offer is, that just at that time he was reading Mr. Howells's 'An Undiscovered Country,' and that he is impressionable. At all events, however clearly one can understand from these too frank digressions what a man should not do, it is quite impossible to comprehend how he thinks a woman should dress, behave, and live.

Returning to the thread of his story, Pozdnisheff relates how he proposed for his wife after a very brief acquaintance, fascinated by her jersey, her well-dressed hair, and a boating excursion, and adds that, had it not been for the tailors who dressed her well, and the close jersey, etc., he should never have married. This does not agree with the statement that all through his vicious bachelorhood he had firmly intended to marry if he could find any one good enough for him. An interesting point here is that he shows his betrothed his bachelor diary, just as Levin shows his to Kitty in 'Anna Karenin,' and with precisely the same effect, only less well told. The repetition of this incident and the probable rarity of such diaries seem to hint at a personal experience.

They are married. The description of the honeymoon and of their married life nearly up to the date of the final catastrophe is, like what precedes, unquotable. Suffice it to say that they quarrel promptly and continue to quarrel frequently and fiercely, eventually using their five children as moral battering-rams, so to speak, against each other. This last is very well done. At about the age of thirty, his wife becomes plump and prettier, and begins to take an interest again in pretty clothes. His mad jealousy interprets this into a quest for a lover, though there are no proofs of such a thing even alleged. The description of his jealousy is, however, the best part of the book. Presently the object for jealousy for whom the husband has been on the lookout, makes his appearance in the person of a handsome young man, of good family, who has been educated in Paris by a relative, as he has no money, and who has become a very fine and semi-professional violinist. The young man comes to call on his old acquaintance, Pozdnisheff, on his return to his native land. Pozdnisheff instantly fixes upon him, in his own mind, as the fated lover. Nevertheless, or rather in consequence of this, he is unusually cordial, introduces the musician to his wife (quite unnecessarily), and begs him to bring his violin that very evening and play duets with her. The musician comes, behaves with perfect propriety, as Pozdnisheff admits, but jealousy causes him to see what he expects. He urges the musician to dine and play at his house on the following Sunday, still impelled by the fancies of his own disordered brain. The musician accepts; but, having called in the interim to decide upon the proper music to present to the company, he drives Pozdnisheff to such a pitch of unreason that the latter uses vile language to his innocent wife and throws things at her, whereupon she promptly retires and takes poison.

She is rescued, a reconciliation ensues, the dinner comes off, and the "Kreutzer Sonata" in the evening is a great success upon the violin and piano. But the husband's jealousy and imagination are all alive, and interpret every glance of the players to suit himself. On taking leave that evening, the musician bids Pozdnisheff and his wife a final farewell. Pozdnisheff is going to the country on business, and the musician says that he shall leave Moscow himself before the former's return, intimating that he shall not call upon Madame during her husband's absence. Pozdnisheff goes to the country in a tranquil frame of mind, but a letter from his wife, in which she mentions that the musician has called to fetch her the music he promised, sets his jealousy aflame again. He hastens back to Moscow, finds the musician eating supper with his wife, and murders her. On trial he is acquitted on the plea of "justifiable homicide," and when the narrator of

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the story meets him in the train, he is on his way to a small estate in one of the southern governments, his children remaining with his dead wife's sister.

The whole book is a violent and roughly worded attack upon the evils of animal passion. In that sense, it is moral. Translation, even with copious excisions, is impossible, in my opinion, and also inadvisable. The men against whom it is directed will not mend their ways from the reading of it, even if they fully grasp the idea that unhappiness and mad jealousy and crime are the outcome of their ways, as Pozdnisheff is made to say in terms as plain as the language will admit of, and in terms much plainer than are usually employed in polite society. On the other hand, the book can, I am sure, do no good to the people at whom it is not launched. It is decidedly a case where ignorance is bliss, and where uncontaminated minds will carry away a taint which a few will be able to throw off, but which will linger with the majority as the wine of the fable lingered in the cask meant for pure water. Such morbid psychology can hardly be of service, it seems to me, much as I dislike to criticise Count Tolstoi.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

Correspondence.

DEMONSTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If ever two facts could make up the final arguments to a conclusion, those two facts are the Tariff and the Pension bills. As to the Tariff Bill, there can be no question that it is absolutely a product of the lobby. Not only is the entire mass of consumers deliberately laid under contribution to private interests, but one set of interests—manufacturing and commercial—which does not keep an adequate lobbying force at Washington, is sacrificed to another set which does. And the conditions for lobbying are ideally perfect. The nation, that is, the mass of consumers, is wholly unrepresented either in Congress or in the management of the finances. The whole matter is in the hands of a committee of local representatives, working in secret and perfectly screened from public criticism. The members of that committee would be more than human if they did not keep in view, as their first object, the securing of their seats at the next election. They will do just what promises to promote that end, and they will do nothing else.

It may be thought that this end would be best forwarded by taking care of the interests of the great mass of voters. The Republicans are shrewd managers—probably, with their training of a quarter of a century, much more so than the Democrats—and they have decided the other way. They know that, now that the offices have to a considerable extent been taken out of politics by civil-service reform, money is to play a greater part than ever before, and especially with everything turning on one or two doubtful States. The next election will depend more upon money than anything else. They know, further, that the most certain way to get money in unlimited amounts is to build up an elaborate system of interests based upon artificial privileges, and that when capital in large amounts has been embarked in this, it will pay tremendously, much more than it would at the outset, rather than have the system broken up. With this backing they are prepared to defy any agitation of public opinion, which they know can be frittered away on any number of different issues—civil-service reform, temperance, labor movements, woman suffrage, and so on.

They are quite aware, also, of another result which has followed from civil-service reform, namely, that it is of much less consequence who is President than which party has a majority in Congress. When the President controlled the disposition of the offices, he was an all-important factor in politics, as he still is to the extent to which he controls them. If that power is taken away, as he has no other of any kind, except the veto, which is not of much practical account, it is of little consequence whether he poses as a Democratic or a Republican figurehead. The politicians, therefore, see more of promise in controlling Congressional districts and State Legislatures.

What all these things mean is shown by the fact that the tariff has for twenty years been about as bad it is now, and the only sign or hope of improvement consists in this, that, as it is getting worse almost every year, it may at some future time become so intolerable that the abstract quantity known as the people may rise up and sweep the whole fabric away. The immediate consequence of this would, however, be so disastrous (just as total abstinence is said to be to a man in *delirium tremens*) that no party would dare to undertake it.

The same reasoning applies to the Pension Bill. Close as is the connection between an unjust and oppressive tariff and an equally unjust and dangerous surplus, the public do not see it, because the two subjects are in the hands of different committees, both impersonal, both secret, and both independent of each other. As far as Congress is concerned, both parties must agree cordially in this, that whose turn soever it may be to hold power, it is most desirable to have a large fund disposable for the purchase of votes, and no way could be imagined more perfect than a vast system of pensions. Neither party has, probably, the slightest desire to diminish the surplus except by expenditure, and that expenditure of the kind most effective in local politics.

No kind of agitation of public opinion will be of any permanent avail which does not make as its main object the means of fighting the lobby. And the only means of doing this successfully is to secure the predominance of the public and national over private and local interests; to have in Congress, in the person of Cabinet officials, powerful national representatives who can compel the transfer of business from the secrecy of committee-rooms to an arena where it can be debated upon public grounds and in full view of the public.

O! for some public man of honorable ambition, independent means, and unflinching courage to make himself the Peter the Hermit of a new crusade! G. B.

BOSTON, April 12, 1890.

THE BENNETT LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 10, you state that the recent municipal election of Milwaukee turned upon the question "*whether education in the English language shall be required in the schools of a State.*"

Allow me to call your attention to the fact that this is not an exact presentation of the *status controversiæ*. If the notorious Bennett Law demanded nothing but the teaching of the English language in all public and private schools of the State, there would be little or no opposition to it on the part of the Milwaukee Germans, who are wide awake to the fact that their children need as thorough a knowledge as possible of the official language of our country, and who, therefore, spare no pains to give them, in their parochial and private schools, a good education not only in the German, but also in the English language.

The Bennett Law, however, demands more than this. It says: "No school shall be regarded as a school under this act unless there shall be taught therein, as part of the elementary education of children, *reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history* IN *the English language.*" According to the terms of this provision, the above four branches must be taught *through the medium* of the English language, or a school cannot be regarded as a school under the Bennett Law. It does not say: "Only those schools shall be regarded as schools in which *English reading and writing*, etc., are taught," but *it forbids the use of any language but the English in teaching reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history.* A German child which in a German school is taught to read the German language, must, by the terms of this law, be taught such reading *in* (*i. e.*, through the medium of) the English language, or the school loses its right to exist. Is it to be wondered at that the Milwaukee Germans oppose such unreasonable legislation with all the legitimate means at their command?

Again, by what *right* can the State enact that no language but the English must be employed in teaching arithmetic and United States history? Will the English boy who in his school-days learns the multiplication-table be a better and more loyal citizen on that account than the German boy who learns the *Einmaleins?* Or is it impossible to teach the history of the United States profitably in any but the English language?

In opposing, therefore, the Bennett Law, the Milwaukee Germans did by no means fight against the education of their children in the English language, but against a nativistic Knownothingism and an un-American paternalism.—Most respectfully,

AUGUST CRULL.

FT. WAYNE, IND., April 12, 1890.

[We cannot interpret the Bennett Law to prescribe that German reading be taught through the medium of the English language. The clear intent seems to be to compel every child to learn to read English, to write English, to learn United States history from English-written text-books, and to "cipher" in English terms. How German shall be taught is no concern of the law.—ED. NATION.]

THE PAN-AMERICAN COIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can you not print something severe as to the absurdity and impudence of the United States, or even Pan-America, proposing an international coin, though only for this continent? The text is at hand, in the fact that in the countries of the Latin Monetary Union, France, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, etc., one sees handbills with cuts of good and bad money. Among the "pièces à refuser" as not worth five francs are the dollars of Mexico, Peru, Chile, Argentine Republic, New Granada, Colombia, Guatemala, and the United States, which last its friends perhaps fondly believe to be worth 5.20 francs. It is rather mortifying for the average-honest American traveller in Europe to see these handbills, of which I have two different specimens.

Yours truly, W. S. A.

BOSTON, April 5, 1890.

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THREE MODERNISMS.—I.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A would-be critic, writing a few years ago, imagined himself borne out in speaking ironically of the "correctness and beauty" of an idiom which Lord Beaconsfield exemplifies in his 'Endymion,' published in 1881, namely: "I *have* never *been* back *to* the old place." That an urchin should say "I *have been to* school," would, accordingly, incur the frowns of this uninquiring fault-finder. The urchin could not have profited by sound teaching, or else such teaching could not have fallen to his unhappy lot. Otherwise, he would have said, "I *have attended* school," or something quite as stately. Though a decemnovenarian, as some would call him, he is not to be allowed to decemnovenarianize in language.

Dr. Murray, under *be*, has, as yet, only just mentioned *been to*, followed by a substantive, in his Dictionary, giving, on his own authority, "*Have* you *been to* the Crystal Palace?" as allowable English; his intention being, doubtless, to return to the point, when he by and by reaches *to*. The present discussion of it will not, therefore, be considered as superfluous.

Among Englishmen, from the highest to the lowest, one now constantly hears locutions like "I *have been to* town," "I *had been to* town," "I *may have been to* town," and so on, with "*Having been to* town, here I am again." In the first of these sentences, the tense is the simple preterite; and, in the others, the last of them excepted, there are modifications of it. And the construction in hand is confined, with respect to tense, within these limits. If, however, a former use of *was*, to be spoken of presently, had survived to us, we might have had "I *was to* town," analogous to "I *have been to* town."

The development of the forms of speech instanced above, "I *have been to* town," etc., can perhaps be made obvious. Of at least somewhat longer standing than Dr. Murray evidences are expressions of the stamp of the following, in which *has been* and *had been*, pointing to motion, precede the infinitive of purpose:

"He *had been to see* the citee of Lacedemon." Rev. Nicholas Udall, *Apophthegmes* (1542), fol. 134*v*.

"He *had been to look* for his Master about Primrose-Hill." Sir Roger L'Estrange, *A Brief History of the Times*, part iii. (1688), p. 172.

"Yesterday in the evening I went to church, and *have been* to-day *to see* the great burning-glass." Dr. Johnson (1783), in Mrs. Piozzi's *Letters* (1788), vol. ii., p. 282.

"My surgeon *has* just *been to look* at my back." Lord Palmerston (1818), in the Earl of Malmesbury's *Letters* (1870), vol. ii., p. 524.

"We *have been to see* the dancing dervishes." Mr. Arthur Hugh Clough (1861), *Letters and Remains* (1865), p. 315.

Much less common, and now obsolete, is the employment, corresponding to that of *has been* and *had been*, just exhibited, of *was*, to signify "went," and also "came." Quotations for it are appended, the second of them being different from anything given by Dr. Murray:

"I *was to see* him this afternoon, & doe fear him." Rev. Philip Henry (1689), *Diaries and Letters* (1882), p. 363.

"Mrs. Wenlock *was to see mee* yesterday, & brought mee a bottle of wine." *Id.* (1685), *ibid.*, p. 341.

(In the first of these two passages, *fear* means "fear for," a sense of it overpassed by the lexicographers. I find, under the date of 1548: "The carefull hen, *fearing* her chickens, dothe clocke them together.")

Nowhere, perhaps, but in America, and among the most illiterate Englishmen, does one hear the like of "I sleep *home*," "I stay *home* on Sundays." Yet, in some cases where, at first sight, *home* may seem to be a barbarism, as it unquestionably is there, the peculiarity lies in the verb which it accompanies. "I *have been home* a year," comparable with "the mercury *is down to* zero," affords afresh an instance of the verb *to be* deflected, unless we suppose a violent ellipsis, from the sense of existence to that of motion. As I proceed to show, this manner of writing and speaking is neither a novelty nor a vulgarism:

"I long *to be home*, and have taken a place in the coach for Monday." Dr. Johnson (1773), in Mrs. Piozzi's *Letters* (1788), vol. i., p. 207.

"Tell him I *am* not *home*." Rev. Richard Graves, *Columella* (1779), vol. ii., p. 103.

"I . . . *shall be home* within three weeks." Southey (1805), *Letters* (1856), vol. i., p. 340. "I *have been home* a few days." *Id.* (1811), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 232. "I *shall be home* by the middle of February." *Id.* (1837), *Life* (1850), vol. vi., p. 321.

"I *have been home* two days; but I am not myself yet." Bernard Barton, *Selections*, etc. (1849), p. 73.

"At least when we *are safe home*." Rev. Charles Kingsley, *Hypatia* (1853), p. 267 (ed. 1886).

"Grim and Helgi *will be home* ere men have eaten their full to-night." Sir G. W. Dasent, *The Story of Burnt Njal* (1861), vol. ii., p. 167.

"As soon as Peter *was* well *home*. Paul must set off in his turn." *Id.*, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 248.

"Prince Louis-Lucien Bonaparte *is home* again from his long visit to Italy." *The Academy*, October 12, 1889, p. 236.

We also find, where the freedom of conversation is indulged in:

"People *home* on a holiday do not mind what money they spend." Mr. J. W. Sherer, *At Home and in India* (1883), p. 178.

People "that *are at* home" is not to be understood in this place, but people "that *have come* home."

The idiom here touched on is, again, among those which the makers of dictionaries have failed to register, even as they have passed over familiar expressions like "He *is* much farther *into* actual life than I am," "He *was* well *into* the bog,"—respectively from Mr. A. H. Clough and Sir G. W. Dasent—in which, once more, the verb substantive has come to denote motion.

On all fours with "I *have been to* town" is the presumably old "I *have been into* the town"; and so, in one of its senses latterly current, is "I *have been about* the country," with "I *have been across* the street, *among* savages, *before* the magistrate, *down* the river, *over* the mountain, *through* the woods, *up* the tower, *abroad*, *ashore*, *away*, *out*, *farther than* Ipswich," etc., etc. By all these phrases, precisely as in "I *have been to see* the town," good English, at least since the sixteenth century, combined arrival and departure are signified. Nor was less than this formerly intended by "I *have been in* town"; words now, however, generally complemented temporally, and used only by a person who has not yet left town, as in "I *have been in* town *a fortnight*."

In recent times we have thus, to mark a distinction, evolved (and without violation of analogy) a compendious expression the alternative of which could not be obtained except in a periphrasis. We may, therefore, justly give it a welcome, as being equally convenient, on the score of brevity, with *fetch*, instead of *go and bring*.

"He *has been here*"; "I *have been there*"; "No matter *where* they *have been*." *Here*, *there*, and *where* having grown to be often equivalent to *hither*, *thither*, and *whither*, that is to say, to import *to* a place as well as *in* a place, it may be that similar locutions were influential towards engendering those of the type of "I *have been to* town." Quotations kindred to those adduced below might be multiplied to any amount:

"This day I was at Brumm., *where* I *have* not *been* these many days." Rev. Philip Henry (1663), *Diaries and Letters* (1882), p. 144.

"In our return from the Wood, *where* wee *had been* to see your Sister." *Id.* (1687), *ibid.*, p. 356.

"I told Clancy, my landlord, *where* I *had been*." Thomas Amory, *Life of John Buncle* (1766), vol. iii., p. 209 (ed. 1770).

"Returning . . . from Tallow-Hills, *where* I *had been* to see a young lady." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iv., p. 194.

To return to my main subject: wholly untenable, I take it, is the supposition which seems to have been entertained in some quarters that "I *have been to* town," for instance, was suggested by "I *was to* town," an archaism, still existent dialectally and otherwise, for "I *was in* town." Whether invalid historically or valid, that supposition, as in all analogous cases, has no rational bearing, however, on the legitimacy of the mode of expression here discussed, its legitimacy having been determined by a tribunal whose rulings are irreversible. Good usage sanctions it, and, as a consequence, it is safe from all condemnation but that of ignorance or folly.

It is farther observable, that the idiom, an acknowledged modernism, on which I am remarking, where shunned, now-a-days, by the well-informed, is shunned solely on the ground of its being colloquial.

As regards the quotations about to be given, no critical reader of later English literature, especially that dating from about 1830, will require to be told that they might be added to indefinitely:

"The poor thing *has been to* all the baths in the kingdom, you know, except those of Buxton." Samuel J. Pratt, *The Pupil of Pleasure* (1776), vol. i., p. 48.

"After I *had been* up *to* bed"; "Eden *having been to* Shelburne House"; "He *has been to* Christ Church in Oxford." Jeremy Bentham (1781), *Works* (1838–43), vol. x., pp. 99, 101, 104.

"Once I *have* borrowed a horse and *been to* Mr. Dampier's to look at his Devonshire cattle." Rev. Mr. Gale (1810), in Southey's *Life of Dr. Andrew Bell* (1844), vol. ii., p. 279.

"After the dancing, the good folks of the cottage sent for a boy out of the village, who *had been to* Malta, which place it was evident, from their manner, that they all looked upon as the Ultima Thule." J. C. Hobhouse (Lord Broughton), *A Journey*, etc. (1812), p. 255. "Mr. Manning *had been to* the library and consulted the volume in question." *Id.*, *Italy*, etc. (1859), vol. i., p. 222.

"Kinder *had been to* the scene of action, and dined frequently at head-quarters." Southey (1813), *Life* (1850), vol. iv., p. 55. And so in letters dated 1815, 1819, 1836, 1838, etc.

"These men were quite persuaded you *could* not *have been to* the top." Rev. Dr. William Whewell (1822), in Mr. I. Todhunter's *Account of Dr. Whewell's Writings* (1876), vol. ii., p. 50. "I *have been to* several of them, to request," etc. *Id.* (1825), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 56. "We *have been to* St. Leonard's." *Id.* (1845), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 329.

"When he *had been to* court, he drove to the office where his book was printing, without changing his clothes." Lord Macaulay, *Essays*, *Boswell's Life of Johnson* (1831). "This is the first dinner-party that I *shall have been to* for a long time." *Id.* (1833), *Life and Letters* (ed. 1889), p. 243. "I *have been* with George Babington *to* the Asia." *Id.* (1833), *ibid.*, p. 254.

"You know how differently a boy regards home when he *has* once *been to* school." Mr. A. H. Clough (1836), *Letters and Remains* (1865), p. 24. Also *id.*, *ibid.* (1837, 1852), pp. 31, 227.

"A Russian lady who *had* not *been to* the ball." Translation of Custine's *Empire of the Czar* (1843), vol. ii., p. 34.

"I *have been* with Barclay *to* Southampton." Miss Caroline Fox (1854), *Memories of Old Friends* (1882), p. 298.

"*Have* you ever *been to* Hastings, or S. Leonards?" Rev. F. E. Paget, *Owlet of Owlstone Edge* (1856), p. 19.

"I *have* never *been to* Hell in my life." Sir

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G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), p. 69. "Eric Bloodaxe . . . sailed back from Biarmaland or Permia, *whither* he *had been* on a viking cruize." *Id.*, *The Story of Burnt Njal* (1861), vol. ii., p. 278.

"Tom *had* positively *been to* the house." Rev. James Pycroft, *Agony Point* (1861), p. 91, (ed. 1862).

"Well, I *have been to* Gnadenthal." Lady Duff Gordon (1863), *Last Letters from Egypt*, etc. (1875), p. 268. "As if I *had been to* Lake Ngami." *Id.* (1863); *ibid.*, p. 315.

"He *had been away to* Russia to King Jaroslaf." Rev. Charles Kingsley (1874), *Lectures Delivered in America* (1875), p. 76.

"Dolly *had been to* the place." Mr. J. W. Sherer, *At Home and in India* (1883), p. 60. Also at p. 174.

"The Orb of Day has returned. It *has been to* Scotland." Mr. James Payn, in the *Illustrated London News*, vol. xcv., p. 230 (Aug. 24, 1889).

"Hook *had been to* prison *for a month*." So a penny-a-liner delivers himself in a London journal of Sept. 9, 1889. I am not aware that his device for combining what is intended by *had been to* and *had been in* has any authority beyond his own good pleasure. F. H.

MARLESFORD, England.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO., Philadelphia, have in press 'How to Remember History,' a method of memorizing dates, by Virginia Conser Shaffer; 'Historic Note-Book,' by the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer; 'Gleanings for the Curious from the Harvest-Fields of Literature,' by C. C. Bombaugh, M.D.; 'Economic Basis of Protection,' by Prof. Simon N. Patten; 'Messalina,' a tragedy, by Algernon Sydney Logan; and a novel, 'For a Mess of Pottage,' by Sidney Lyon.

'Silver in Europe,' by S. Dana Horton, will be published immediately by Macmillan & Co.

An historical romance, 'The House of the Wolf,' by Stanley J. Weyman, is announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

A new series of standard classics, "Library of the World's Best Books," is projected by A. L. Burt, 56 Beekman Street, New York city.

'Truths to Live by,' a new volume of sermons by Canon Farrar, will be issued immediately by Thomas Whittaker.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will publish shortly 'A Foreign Match,' by Mme. Charles Bigot (Miss Mary Healey), and 'Russia: Its People and its Literature,' lectures at Madrid before the Spanish Athenæum by Doña Emilia Pardo Bazán, translated by Fanny Hale Gardiner.

Mr. T. W. Higginson and Mrs. S. A. Bigelow are preparing a volume of about two hundred and fifty selected sonnets by American writers, Mr. Higginson furnishing the introduction.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, has made a facsimile of the new-found original letter in which Columbus, in Spanish, announced the discovery of America, and for which Mr. Quaritch asks the modest sum of $8,000, whereas any one of the hundred copies of the reproduction "on two square small folio leaves (four pages) of paper, done up in cloth," may be had for $10.

A much smaller sum will procure the reproduction of a revelation of a New World of English poetry, in the shape of Prof. Dowden's reprint of the 1798 edition of Wordsworth and Coleridge's 'Lyrical Ballads' (London: David Nutt). One knows what to expect when Prof. Dowden puts his hand to a task of this sort—learning, accuracy, and scholarly self-restraint. The reprint is not a strict facsimile, but is a close imitation in respect of type and of line for line and page for page. Prof. Dowden goes so far as to retain in the text the errata noted in the original edition, but inconsistently changes or supplies a point and separates two words that ran together—a liberty which would have justified inserting a colon in line three of p. iii. of the "Advertisement." A brief preface and brief notes, with some account of alterations in the subsequent editions of the poems, impart all needful bibliographical information. The little volume, "which opens with 'The Ancient Mariner' and closes with the 'Lines written a few miles above Tintern Abbey,'" is a pure delight, without and within.

M. Guy de Maupassant's 'Pierre and Jean' is the latest volume in George Routledge & Son's prettily printed and illustrated series of translations. The novel is one of Maupassant's stronger ones, and, in the view of some critics, shows the first indications of its author's moving away from realism and towards psychology. The translator is Mr. Hugh Craig, and the illustrations are by MM. Ernest Duez and Albert Lynch. Maupassant, by the way, is a model traveller, in that he sees things with his own eyes and describes what he sees with extraordinary skill. In 'La Vie Errante' (Paris: Ollendorff: New York: F. W. Christern), he tells us how he ran away from the Eiffel Tower and took a little yacht down the Italian coast to Sicily, whence he went to Algiers and Tunis. Especially fresh are his impressions of Sicily, of which island he writes as though he had rediscovered it; and especially frank is his account of his glimpse of the lower side of life in Algiers and Tunis.

The eighth volume of M. Jules Jusserand's series of biographies of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" is devoted to 'Vauvenargues' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). It is written by M. Maurice Paléologue. We shall defer criticism until the publication of the American translation, noting now only the fact that the book has appeared in Paris, and that there is no portrait of Vauvenargues extant, so that the frontispiece of this biography is but the facsimile of a letter of his to Voltaire. Among the other volumes of the series announced for early publication are M. Sarcey's 'Corneille,' M. Brunetière's 'Voltaire,' and M. Gaston Bossier's 'Saint-Simon.'

Two little companion brochures belonging in the "Bibliothèque Photographique" of Gauthier-Villars & Fils, Paris (New York: F. W. Christern) deserve the attention of amateur and professional photographers. The first part of M. Moëssard's 'Le Cylindrographe' clearly describes and figures this panoramic apparatus as a camera having a semicircular back on which the image is thrown; an objective, set in black cloth and pivoted so as to move freely in connection with sights or finders on top of the camera, and traversing 170 degrees. The results of this sweep, which takes in the entire horizon, lacking 20 degrees, on two negatives, are surprising. But this camera is as valuable for groups as for landscapes, and is capable of some extraordinary feats of foreshortening ("en perspective fuyante dans les airs"), when hinged vertically. An appliance of scales and levels produces a *cylindrographe topographique*, described in Part ii. Of this we will only say that it is designed to enable a topographic plotting to be made from the scenic panorama. We call the attention of our friends of the Appalachian Club to this camera.

Few things are more interesting than to watch the growth of our national holidays and fête days. It was a long time before the inherited celebration of the 1st of May was felt to be absurd, but the month was in a way to be acknowledged "a pious fraud of the almanac" when Decoration Day was fixed for the end of it, and now Arbor Day carries us back again to the beginning. This last has already a considerable literature, and we have on our table the New York State Superintendent's Arbor Day circular for the coming month (May 2), an 'Arbor Day Manual,' edited by the Deputy Superintendent, Charles R. Skinner (Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.), and 'Harper's School Speaker,' compiled by James Baldwin, and adapted for Arbor Day and Decoration Day (or "Memorial Day"). The 'Manual' contains selections and original contributions, in prose and verse, music and songs for the exercises, and some historical data, from which we learn that Nebraska invented Arbor Day in 1872, and has planted nearly 400,000,000 trees in consequence in its own borders. Mr. Baldwin's 'School Speaker' meets as well as could be expected the duty of praising militant patriotism while reprobating war. Its third and final section is headed "Peace versus War," and draws largely upon Sumner's famous oration, "The True Grandeur of Nations."

The series of grammars in French, German, Spanish, and Italian, bearing the name of "Hossfeld's New Practical Method," though each has a distinct authorship, have been put on the American market by the New York School-Book Clearing-House of this city. They agree in the general method of instruction, and also, we must add, in being very unattractive in appearance. Their aim is conversational and commercial rather than literary, and if there be any originality in the method of presentation, it is chiefly in respect of proportion. A little 'Spanish Reader' and 'French Conversations' accompany the grammars.

M. Gastineau's 'Conversation Method for Speaking, Reading, and Writing German' (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) is a well-executed work, beautifully printed. It is allied perhaps most nearly to the Prendergast system, but with a character of its own, and the conversations are natural, continuous, and free from ineptitude. The grammar is taught incidentally, but its summary formal development is reserved for the close of the volume.

Dr. Solomon Deutsch's 'Drill-master in German' (Baker & Taylor Co.) plants itself on the principles of gradation and repetition. As its name imports, it is a teacher's instrument rather than a self-learner's. The conversation method is not employed to any great extent, and the passages for drill are mostly fragmentary. The explanatory and grammatical notes are excellent, and so is the plan of generally using the Roman letter.

Prof. H. C. G. Brandt's 'German Reader for Beginners' (Boston: Allyn & Bacon) is another well-equipped book, with competent notes referring to Whitney's, Joynes's, and the author's grammars, and a vocabulary in which special attention has been paid to the indication of cognates in other tongues. The selections in prose and verse are fairly divided between the elder and the later classics; one section of the prose has an historical complexion and value.

At least a method of doubling one's vocabulary is offered by Prof. A. Muzzarelli's 'Antonymes de la Langue Française' (New York; Wm. R. Jenkins; Boston: Carl Schoenhof). The drill consists in converting every sentence into opposite terms of its leading affirmation or idea. One cannot, if held up by a teacher, fall asleep over it; but a course of two hundred pages of these substitutions has both a dry and formidable look. The author, however, appeals to his experience.

Prof. Shedd gathers together several articles

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and addresses of his on topics connected with 'The Proposed Revision of the Westminster Standards' (Scribners) to make a pamphlet contribution to the permanent literature of the subject. His well-known views are here enforced in his well-known style. We must leave it to others to say if his weakest point is not exegesis—both of the Westminster itself and of the Scriptures—and content ourselves with remarking the lodgment which the liberal spirit has made within even his fortifications: we refer to his concession of universal infant salvation, his admission that many righteous heathen may be saved, and his acknowledgment that it would be difficult to work out a theodicy except on the supposition that the majority of the race will ultimately be saved.

We are glad to perceive that House bill No. 7558 and Senate bill No. 2747, taking away the postal premium on the manufacture of dime-novel literature, have alarmed the manufacturers.

The Providence Public Library seems at last to have caught the attention of the city fathers, and to have turned over a new leaf of material prosperity. Mr. Foster's twelfth annual report shows also, on the spiritual side, that the fiction percentage of circulation has now got down to 56, a remarkably low figure when one considers how much good and wholesome reading is included in it. Seven copies of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' we are told, were insufficient for the demand, and volume one was taken out 101 times in the course of the year.

Nos. 1, 2, and 3 of volume xii. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* are on our table. No. 1 is adorned with a fine head of M. H. Poincaré, who contributes to No. 3 an elaborate article of eighty-four pages, "Sur les Équations aux Dérivées Partielles de la Physique Mathématique." The three numbers contain seven articles, filling 322 pages 4to. Five of them are in English, two in French. Two of the five are by English mathematicians, three by Americans. Of the former, one—which for convenience is divided between Nos. 1 and 2—covers 106 pages, and is by A. R. Forsyth of Trinity College, Cambridge. Its title would not be understood, even by professional mathematicians, without reference to the explanation of the author given in a note at its commencement. In the other, Maj. P. A. MacMahon, R.A., who began it as Capt. MacMahon in vol. xi., continues the development of his "New Theory of Symmetric Functions." Of the remaining three articles, in one, Prof. F. Franklin, of whom we have before spoken as one of the most promising of our younger mathematicians, discourses of "Circular Coördinates." In another, Mr. H. B. Fine treats of "Singular Solutions of Ordinary Differential Equations." Lastly, Mr. F. N. Cole shakes the dust of the world of sense from his feet, and, soaring into the regions of pure ideality, expounds the principles that govern "Rotations in Space of Four Dimensions." It is here that the motto of the *Journal*, Πραγμάτων ἔλεγχος οὐ βλεπομένων, is especially appropriate.

A report of an expedition sent out last summer by the Bremen Geographical Society for the investigation of the fauna of eastern Spitzbergen is to be found in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March. The geographical results only of the expedition are given in this paper, which is accompanied by a remarkably clear map, but there are several interesting references to the bears, of which an extraordinary number were seen. Reindeer were also very numerous on some of the islands, occasionally where they must have been obliged to go enormous distances over the ice. This fact would seem to throw some light upon the vexed question as to the origin of the Spitzbergen reindeer. A supplemental number contains an account of the "Kulturzonen" of Northern Abyssinia by Dr. Karl Dove.

Antonio de Serpa Pimentel was very naturally called to the Prime Ministry during Portugal's recent troubles, as his distinguished public services and special abilities clearly marked him out for the position. Born in 1825, he took his doctor's degree at the age of twenty, and won a professor's chair in the Polytechnic School of Lisbon six years later. Beginning his political career as an editor, he was first elected a Deputy in 1856, and has since been Minister of Public Works, Minister of Finance, and Minister of Foreign Affairs. He was Portugal's plenipotentiary at the Berlin Congress on the Congo territory. As an author, besides some excursions into the fields of poetry and the drama, he has published 'The Eastern Question,' 'Alexandre Herculano and his Times,' and 'Nationality and Representative Government.'

— In the April issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, President Francis A. Walker has a paper on "Protection and Protectionists," which deserves to be singled out from the mass of current literature on the tariff. President Walker is always temperate and unbiassed, and the protectionists cannot say that he has failed to treat their cause fairly. Not only does he admit a degree of validity in some familiar arguments on their side, like that for protection to young industries; he notes also for their benefit certain arguments which they have themselves failed to discover, such as the suggestion of the disadvantages which may flow from the indefinite extension of the division of labor. But this very temperateness makes more effective his protest against the protectionist twaddle with which the country has been flooded since the Republicans took up President Cleveland's challenge on the tariff question. Indeed, he devotes his space largely to a simple classification of the protectionists, pointing out how wide is the gap between the Chinese-wall men and the moderate protectionists; and he thinks it "not extravagant to say that there has been more pure Chinese-wall talk in this country within the past two years than during our whole previous history as a nation." In this, and in the presentation and weighing of the arguments pro and con, few sensible men would find occasion to differ with him. The weakest part of the paper, to our thinking, is that which touches the aspect of the tariff controversy now uppermost in the public mind—the pauper-labor argument. President Walker's test as to the validity of that argument seems to be whether an increase of food and luxuries, turned over to the laborers in the form of wages, increases their productive power; whether "niggardliness of expenditure in generating labor power does not meet the same retribution which niggardliness of expenditure generally meets in other directions." To analyze the general reasoning would pass the limits of our space. Some aid in discriminating between what is true and what is untrue in the pauper-labor talk is doubtless got from President Walker's point of view; but we think it an error, looking at the whole field, to consider high wages as the cause rather than as the result of abundant production.

— The New England Meteorological Society has made an arrangement with the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College by which the tables and discussions resulting from the observations gathered by the Society shall appear in the Annals of the Observatory; and the first product of this partnership appears in a volume for the year 1888. It is chiefly occupied by tables containing a list of observers and stations, with their latitude, longitude, and altitude; then a summary of the records for every month; a table of daily rainfall at a large number of stations; and finally, a series of annual means, normals, maxima, and minima. The tables are preceded by a review of the year by quarters, prepared by Prof. Winslow Upton of Brown University, then acting as Director of the Society, while the tabular matter is the work of several assistants assigned to this duty by the Chief Signal Officer from the men of his corps—Sergt. L. G. Schultz having performed the greater part of this considerable labor. Prof. Upton contributes also a discussion of the cyclonic storms that traversed New England during 1888, and from which nearly all of its rain and snowfall is received. Eighty-eight of these atmospheric disturbances crossed the district during the year, many of them of considerable severity; among the latter being the March blizzard and the November tropical cyclone. Thunder-storms and heavy rainfalls are also briefly discussed. The Society is fortunate in having its records published in so excellent a form.

—M. Lucien Descaves is at the present moment enjoying in Paris the advantages of praise and pudding which come so often to the author of a prosecuted book. About a year ago he published a novel, constructed in accordance with the naturalist formula, called 'Sous-Offs.' This book dealt mainly with the life in barracks of the non-commissioned officers of the French Army, of which it took a very dark view, representing it as sordid and vicious in the extreme. The sub-officers, according to it, "déjeunent de la fille et soupent du soldat"; they are "des proxénètes et des voleurs," as well as a number of other things that are not nice. Touching in this rude way so sensitive a point as the pride of the French in their army, M. Descaves made, what no doubt he sought, a sensation and nine days' talk, and sold enough copies of his rather dull book to bring him in a return of 15,000 francs. It is doubtful if he would have received even so much as this if threats of prosecution had not advertised his novel from the first. These threats have been at last carried into effect, and the cause was tried on March 15, 16, before the Court of Assizes of the Seine. The prosecution was so far under the sanction of the Government as to be conducted by the Advocate-General, M. Rau. The charge against the book was that it was offensive to good morals and insulting to the army. The author was defended by Maître Tézenas, on the ground that he wrote with ample knowledge and in good faith; that his book showed the good side of the army as well as the bad; and that it was a most valuable "document," being the plain truth about the army, told after years of study of it. M. Lucien Descaves was acquitted without delay, and now, as we said, is enjoying a little triumph.

— M. André Maurel makes the acquittal of the author of 'Sous-Offs' the occasion of a brief discourse in the *Revue Bleue* of March 22. He draws from it two morals, or, rather, *moralités*, one addressed to the author, the other to the naturalist school in general. An author who has been prosecuted, he says, runs great risk from the temptation to pose thereafter as

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a "martyr of letters"; to act, and perhaps in some measure also to feel, as if his real place was by the side of Flaubert and other masters, who are great not by virtue of the accident of prosecution which he shares with them, but by the production of such books as 'Madame Bovary' is. To the school of Médan he points out that an author ought to have a better excuse for an offensive book than merely to say, "J'ai dit la vérité." That, according to M. Maurel, is not much more pertinent than the child's "I didn't mean to" when he has knocked a grown person's eye out. What is the truth, after all? Do not writers see one aspect of it before breakfast and another afterwards? Is it not contingent upon systems and upon human nature? The truth about the army is one thing to the colonel and quite another to Sergeant-Major Descaves. Which of them has the absolute truth? If the naturalist believes that he has, if he lives by faith, let him not murmur if he has to suffer imprisonment for it, or any other loss, as martyrs and confessors have done in all ages. But the advantage still will lie, in M. Maurel's opinion, on the side of the psychologues. They profess to convey only sensations, and not unchanging truths; and, after all, sensations are about the most certain of the things we know. M. Maurel, it will be observed, joins in the cry that has for some time been increasing in volume against the naturalists.

—We had occasion two or three times last summer to speak of the unhappy differences that had put an end to the long friendship and collaboration of MM. Erckmann and Chatrian. It will be remembered that some delicate questions as to the division of the profits of their work having arisen between the two friends, the private secretary of M. Chatrian, M. Georgel, was so ill-advised as to publish in the *Figaro* an absurd and incoherent attack on M. Erckmann, whom he charged with all sorts of baseness, from cowardice to high treason. M. Erckmann replied by a suit at law, which has just been decided in his favor. M. Chatrian was left out of the case; but M. Georgel is condemned to a month's imprisonment and 2,000 francs fine, M. Pigeonnat of the *Figaro* to 500 francs fine, while the two together are mulcted besides in damages of 10,000 francs. The judgment is also ordered to be printed in ten newspapers in Paris and ten in the provinces.

—The German school-reformers have just scored a great success. It is only five years ago that Prof. Paulsen startled the self-sufficiency of orthodox classicists by advocating, in his 'Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts,' the following changes in the curriculum of the German gymnasium: abolition of Greek, introduction of philosophy, increased and broadened instruction in German and the other modern languages. Since then a powerful movement has sprung up directed towards the realization of at least the last point in this programme, which, when effected, will, as a natural consequence, carry the first point with it. Perhaps the most valuable contribution which this reform movement has added to pedagogical literature is the *Zeitschrift für den deutschen Unterricht*, founded in 1887, under the auspices of the venerable Rudolf Hildebrand, a periodical which has already become an indispensable guide for teachers of German, and a most forcible advocate of the claims of native language and literature as a part of national education. The Government until recently maintained a very guarded attitude towards this whole question; but now, it seems, they, too, think that the time has come for decided action. The latest *Armee-Verordnungs-Blatt* publishes a royal rescript, dealing with the instruction in military schools which stand on a level with the Realgymnasien. The rescript announces itself as a forerunner of a decree which is to contain a comprehensive reorganization of the instruction in these schools. And what this reorganization is likely to be may be gathered from the following passages:

"German is to be the centre of the whole instruction. In every subject the pupil must be directed to make a free and easy use of his mother tongue. In the selection of readings, theses, and other papers to be prepared by the pupils, along with the traditions of antiquity, due consideration is to be paid to the culture and intellectual achievements of modern nations, and special attention is to be given to German folk lore, history, and literature. German history, especially that of modern times, *is to take a more prominent part than heretofore*; ancient and mediæval history is to be taught in such a manner as to give an idea of the roots and the growth of our own culture."

These are remarkable utterances, and the reported statement of Herr von Gossler, Prussian Minister of Education, that the Government was planning a reorganization of all the higher schools on the basis of this rescript, makes their importance still more far-reaching.

SOME ASTRONOMICAL WORKS.

Azimuth: A Treatise on this Subject, with a Study of the Astronomical Triangle, etc. By Joseph Edgar Craig, United States Navy. John Wiley & Sons.

Old and New Astronomy. (Parts II.–V.) By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co.

Hand-Book of the Lick Observatory of the University of California. By Edward S. Holden, LL.D. San Francisco: Bancroft & Co.

Great-Circle Sailing: Indicating the Shortest Sea-Routes. By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co.

Astronomy Note-Book for High Schools, Academies, and Colleges. By Marion L. Berneike, M.D. A. Lovell & Co.

Astronomy with an Opera-Glass. By G. P. Serviss. D. Appleton & Co.

Star Atlas: Containing maps of all the stars from 1 to 6.5 magnitude, between the North Pole and 34° South Declination. With explanatory text by Dr. Hermann J. Klein. Translated and adapted for English readers by Edmund McClure, M.R.I.A. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

THE making of the first book on our list, 'Azimuth,' might well have been omitted—the publication of it certainly ought to have been. It is a laboriously detailed discussion of the problem of determining azimuth from an astronomical observation, and is intended also to point out in some minor respects the false teachings of the text-books. It was an utter mistake, in the first place, to suppose that a subject like azimuth could have a big bookful worthily written about it. A condensed paper in some mathematical journal, or, at the most, a long chapter in a treatise on astronomy, navigation, or geodesy, would meet the necessities of the case entirely, not to say more acceptably. Perhaps this work might have found some use in mediæval times; but, if we do not mistake, our age wants gists, not amplifications. No navigator is going to read such a treatise all through. The results should have been summarized in accessible form; on the contrary, no recapitulation of the work is anywhere given. The learner is warned of a great variety of things he should not do, but it is a day's job to find out from this helpful treatise which one of all the possible things that are left he should do. The book abounds in mathematical platitudes, and the author's style is unfinished and obscure.

In large measure the parts ii. and iii. of 'Old and New Astronomy' are disappointing. They show clearly how completely Mr. Proctor's by-path studies in astronomy and allied sciences have determined his choice of topics and the fulness with which they are discussed in his present work. His pages are, in fact, too readily surrendered to mere discussion, where the bare statement of fact would better have sufficed. It is not implied that his discussion is necessarily uninteresting; but patience and paper will not hold out. Plates iii. and iv. are entire failures—possibly the publishers' fault. The paragraphs on projections are good reading, and perhaps only a little diffuse; but one would like to have seen other subjects have equal chance.

Motions of sun, moon, and planets are clearly set forth, perhaps never in more fascinating form, and Mr. Proctor's interest in cycloids and cognate curves accounts for the full exposition of the epicyclic motions of the planets. His tribute to the astronomers of the earliest times is perhaps fully justified by an examination of the facts in the case. He says:

"It seems impossible to doubt that the keen observers and excellent mathematicians who formed the school of Egyptian and Babylonian astronomers, from which the Greek school derived its chief principles, can have failed to be struck by the exact synchronism between the movements of the five planets and of the sun. It appears probable, indeed, as I have already pointed out, that these old astronomers even adopted the theory that the sun is the true centre of the motions of all the planets, our earth included."

Chapter iv., on the true mechanism of the solar system, is written with discrimination, and sets right many things about the work of the earlier astronomers of the modern era not commonly understood. Now and then an unfortunate slip of the pen occurs, as, for instance, where "square" and "cube" are interchanged in the foot-note on page 184. The story of Kepler's work is neatly told, and Galileo is given all due prominence, while the treatment of Newton is in every way satisfactory and masterful. The attempt at a popular presentation of tidal phenomena is accurate, if not fully successful as such; nutation and precession, too, are explained in Mr. Proctor's original way of looking at things. But fascinating as the proofs of the earth's rotation are, have they not been given too great prominence? And might not the same be said of the complexities of the geometry of the lunar motions?

Coming now to the problems of weighing and measuring the solar system, Mr. Proctor is generally not less thoroughly at home. An occasional digression may be pardoned, even if irrelevant; but not such a palpable perversion of the facts as is implied in the statement that photography was an utter failure in the transits of Venus of 1874 and 1882, "no adequate preliminary experiments having been made by the official astronomers responsible for such service"! Evidently, from what is said later, the author means only the British photographs, and should have said so. The American parties took hundreds of available photographs of these transits by a method distinctly the outcome of the preliminary experiments of their own "official astronomers." All in all, however, such points form but trifling objections to a capitally written chapter on a subject of the highest significance; and one grudges the space which Mr. Proctor offends

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good taste by devoting to a last word in his squabble with the Astronomer Royal about the recent transits of Venus. More pages, in fact, are given up to this irrelevant matter than to the entire subject of the relation of the planet Mars to the determination of the sun's distance. The more precise method, by means of the velocity of light, is given due prominence. The methods of weighing the earth are well explained: not only are the older determinations sufficiently recounted, but some useful suggestion and criticism of the newer work are offered. Lunar and planetary masses do not call for special comment. The concluding paragraphs on planetary domain are suggestive and essentially novel. The tribute to the French astronomers and their long labors in the cause of exact astronomy is admirable, and not less just is the slighting allusion to British official action in reference to the theoretic discovery of Neptune. More about this subject, by the way, is promised in subsequent chapters of the work, which it is understood Mr. Proctor had quite completed before his death.

The 'Hand-Book of the Lick Observatory' is a good little manual of information about this institution, and much besides. It tells the little that is known about the strange life of Mr. Lick, and one would naturally expect to find on the most prominent page of the book a fine portrait of this odd and now important personage; but Prof. Holden preëmpts this for a not very good picture of himself. Mr. Lick's remains were in January, 1887, formally deposited in the base of the pier on which the great telescope now rests. The drive to the mountain-top is well worth what it costs, and the guide-book gives an excellent description of it. Following is a concise history of the institution, descriptive notes on the buildings and the water supply, and the instruments, astronomical, meteorological, and seismometric. These last are of Prof. Ewing's design. In a popular and quite readable chapter on the work of an observatory, the sort of work to be undertaken on Mount Hamilton is made plain, as also how the astronomers are to set about doing it. Photographic research will have a prominent place. Telescopes are next treated of historically and otherwise, and a questionable blank-verse apostrophe to the "Unmounted Lens" of the great telescope is allowed the space of a half-dozen or so pages. An article entitled "Photography the Servant of Astronomy" follows, reprinted from the *Overland Monthly* of some years ago, and contains a good historical epitome of the subject, but is unfortunately much rosier as to the outlook than the facts warrant. The remaining chapters deal with clocks and time-keeping, with the Lick Observatory time-service, and with the principal observatories of the world—which latter will bear revising. The illustrations are mostly rather cheap and coarse; but a good index concludes the booklet, which is worth its full cost to any one interested.

Those knowledgeful passengers (and where is the captain who has failed to carry one or two of them on every voyage?) who are so much better informed on navigation than the captain himself, cannot do amiss if they read 'Great-Circle Sailing' on next going to sea. They may then find out one or two things about the apparently erratic nature of great-circle courses, and spare the commanding officer many a needless question, not to say much unearned maligning. It is well known not only that tables have been printed by which great-circle sailing is largely facilitated, but that, by the use of charts on the gnomonic projection, the great-circle course can be indicated by a straight line, just as the rhumb-course is shown on a Mercator chart; also, various approximative constructions have been suggested. But the art of sailing on the shortest courses has made relatively little progress. Mr. Proctor has published charts which are as convenient for great-circle sailing as Mercator's are for rhumb-line navigation; the chief difference is that while the rhumb-line course is a straight line on Mercator, the great-circle course is a circular one on Proctor. It is a matter of high importance. The exposure of life to sea risks and the interests dependent on sea chances are such that a shortening of water routes means diminished danger to life and property and diminished expense of material and labor. For example, take the distance between Cape Town and Melbourne: it is 6,150 miles on the rhumb or usual sailing line, while the great-circle course between the two is nearly 600 miles shorter, meaning a reduction of a voyage by several days. Almost everybody knows that great-circle courses are not always practicable, but Mr. Proctor's charts are quite as useful in selecting the appropriate composite course, and this popular essay cannot fail to serve the interests of all who have to do with long-course navigation.

Little advantage appears from the attempt to teach astronomy in the way dictated by Mrs. Berneike's 'Astronomy Note-Book.' It is only one further effort to make cramming easy and teaching easier; it may be found useful in some high schools and academies, but not elsewhere. The student who wants to acquire a command of the facts of popular astronomy will attain it regardless of the slight obstacles which such a note system is intended to remove, while the pupil not much caring to learn about the stars will derive little assistance, and no incentive, from a system so artificial. The general accuracy of the pamphlet is commendable.

Mr. Serviss some months ago contributed to the *Popular Science Monthly* a series of papers on stellar studies with the simplest of optical apparatus. Those papers form the bulk of the present volume, and it will be found a matter of surprise to many what the capabilities of a mere opera or field-glass are in revealing the more marked objects of the celestial sphere. The author has by no means based his work on mere imagination, but has with his own eyes carefully examined all the objects which his book describes as visible with an opera-glass of good quality. He does not go far wrong in the surmise that the sight of a striking celestial object, even though dimly, will spur on many an observer to become the possessor of more competent optical means. What he advises about the purchase of glasses is well and good, except that we should rather feel disposed to warn the buyer to fight shy of pawn-shops entirely. Being purely arbitrary, the divisions of the asterisms into four classes suitable for observation in the several seasons will occasion embarrassment to the genuine lover of the stars; in fact, almost any other arrangement would have been better. Preferable to a small star atlas, which every one would possess at an early day, would be one of the astral lanterns, several patterns of which are now to be had for a trifle at the shops. The poetic scraps, story-telling, and historic and mythologic padding are a blemish in the working-text; better have relegated them to an appendix or omitted them altogether. The little book is fairly well illustrated, but the pictures of the moon are unnecessarily cheap. All told, the papers on 'Astronomy with an Opera-Glass' are worth having brought together in this more accessible form, but they should have been condensed rather than amplified.

It is an excellent thing to have turned Dr. Klein's capital Star Atlas into English, but it might have been better done than Mr. McClure has done it. The text, which is copious, reaching to seventy or eighty pages, is not always accurate, and betrays a want of familiarity with astronomical investigators and their work. Not having the original German edition at hand, we do not say whose the fault may be—whether author's or translator's; but it is very likely to be the latter's. The elementary concepts and descriptions which precede the charts are well drawn and will be very helpful. The arrangement of the celestial objects in their order of right ascension is good—much better in every way than by constellations, as commonly in works of this sort. The maps themselves are capitally drawn and finely printed. For day-time reference it would be hard to suggest an improvement; but for night use in the observatory, or by any artificial light, the important matter printed in red is legible only with the greatest difficulty, and the strain upon the eyes in consulting the charts seriously unfits them for work at the eye-piece. As a minor matter of convenience, too, it would have been better had these numbers, annexed to the stars and nebulæ in the polar charts, been arranged to read across the page instead of around the pole, about which the book has now to be continually turned in referring to it.

A half-dozen plates of nebulæ and star-clusters follow the general maps of the stars. For the most part these are beyond criticism, and the introduction of the photographic pictures of the more interesting clusters is an especially praiseworthy feature. They show in the most conclusive manner the vast gain to astronomy from the modern applications of photography; and this atlas is in fact the first considerable publication of these results in popular form. All future editions of the Atlas should include the recent photographs of the more remarkable nebulæ as well.

The Life and Letters of Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley. By Mrs. Julian Marshall. 2 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

THE life of Mary Shelley is not wholly new to the world. So much has been written about her unique father and mother and still more unique husband that the reading public has necessarily heard much about Mary herself. But she has always been somewhat obscured by the distinguished personages by whom she has been surrounded. Her pale face and large limpid eyes have looked out at us from the background of the group that fills the family canvas. It has remained for Mrs. Marshall to present us with a portrait of her as a distinct individual, with attitude and coloring of her own.

It must be confessed that her life, looked at from several points of view, was a disappointment. Before her birth she was confidently expected by her parents to be a boy. The letters exchanged at that time by William Godwin and his wife, Mary Wollstonecraft, may be read, by those who are interested in intimate matrimonial chronicles, in Kegan Paul's Life of the former. Mary's birth, when her well-shaped head and delicate frame were presented to the philosopher's eyes, cost the life of her more beautiful and more gifted mother. She could never as a child, in spite of her prettiness and precocious intelligence, win a first place in her father's affections. As a woman, she did not satisfy the expectations that social reformers had formed of the daughter of the

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authoress of a 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman.' As a writer, she did not fulfil the promise that Shelley saw in her literary gifts. Godwin pronounced her talents "truly extraordinary," and told her that her novel of 'Frankenstein' was the most wonderful book to have been written at twenty years of age that he had ever heard of. But she never again wrote a book that equalled 'Frankenstein' in power of imagination or in reputation.

One does not feel, indeed, on finishing these two volumes, that Mary Shelley's place is in the literary Pantheon where nicely balanced criticism disputes the claim to a higher or lower niche of the few who find their way thither. She belongs rather to the "choir invisible" of those who have merged their own abilities in promoting the achievements of others. The gift she has left the world is not her work, but the memory of her personality. There is not a page in the whole history of her life that her biographer has had to hurry over, nor an action that she has had to extenuate. Mistakes there were in plenty. She was not quite seventeen when she committed the "imprudence," as she herself termed it later in life, of placing herself in opposition to the laws of society by uniting her fate with that of Shelley, then the husband of Harriet Westbrook. She was not quite twenty-two when, after having been three times a mother, she was made childless by the death in Rome of the blue-eyed boy named William, whose beauty and promise and angelic sweetness had made him her idol. She was not yet twenty-five when the body of Shelley was washed ashore in the Bay of Spezzia, and she was left without money and almost without friends to face the world which had seen in Shelley only an outlaw and a seducer.

The first volume of Mrs. Marshall's ably and graphically written biography closes with the death of Shelley. The second is given to the twenty-nine years of Mary's widowhood, during which she was forced to labor unremittingly with her pen to eke out the scanty sum which Shelley's father, Sir Timothy, reluctantly allowed for the maintenance of his daughter-in-law and grandson. Three novels (not of modern brevity, but of the length of flight expected of a romance of that day), of which 'The Last Man' is the best known, shorter tales and verses, besides innumerable lives of French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese Men of Letters, written for Lardner's 'Cabinet Cyclopædia,' attest the untiring energy with which she worked. The money which she thus earned would have been more than enough to meet her own wants had she not had a list of beneficiaries longer than that of most men of wealth. Her celebrated but ever impecunious father was unsparing in his demands upon her purse; Claire Clairmont, her evil genius, was always in need of assistance; there was her father's former amanuensis, Marshall, whom she helped to support in his old age, and there were friends poorer than herself who came in for a share of her bounty. One of the most marked traits of Mary Shelley's character was her generosity. Tested by the extreme of poverty and by the sudden rise to comparative affluence, when her son came into possession of the Shelley estate, she never once failed in the open-handed liberality which was as characteristic of Shelley as of herself.

Since Mrs. Marshall has had access to all the journals and letters belonging to Sir Percy and Lady Shelley, one cannot but wish that she had somewhat altered the proportions of her 'Life.' That the time which Mary Shelley spent with her husband is superior in dramatic interest, in picturesqueness of setting, in wealth of emotion, in rapidity of mental development to the rest of her life cannot be denied; but the external history of this period may be learned from other sources. One cannot help wishing to know more of her relations to some of the literary men and women of her day, with whom her celebrity as an authoress brought her into contact later in life. The individuality of the "famous Mrs. Shelley" grows just a trifle shadowy towards the end of the second volume. There is a sense that the biographer has been betrayed by their charm into lingering too long over the earlier years, and has been pressed by lack of space to scant her portrayal at the end.

But on the whole the figure of Mary Shelley stands out clear and distinct from these pages, a being whom we love and admire, and whose history we are the better for following. Hers was one of those rare natures that are capable of a perfect and unfaltering loyalty. That Shelley sometimes tried it, no one who reads this or Prof. Dowden's book can doubt. But Mary's faith in him and in herself was always equal to the demand upon it. It was not the bent of her nature to press her own claims in any relation of life. She was the most serviceable as well as the most unexacting of friends. More than most people, she was called upon to forgive selfishness, hardness, and treachery, but there dwelt neither bitterness nor remembrance of injury in her heart. In that slight, graceful woman, with the fair hair, sloping shoulders, and exquisite Vandyke hands, there existed a force of intellect which no outward circumstances could overcome. With an easier life and with fewer sorrows, she might have developed a genius which would have justified Shelley's early belief.

She died at the age of fifty-four, and was buried in St. Peter's churchyard at Bournemouth, near the home of her son, in Hampshire.

Three Men in a Boat.—The Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. By Jerome K. Jerome. Henry Holt & Co.

EVERY man who writes a book assumes a certain responsibility, both direct and indirect. Not only is he directly responsible for the goodness or badness of his own book, and for its effect on the minds of readers, but, if his book is remarkable or successful, he is quite certain to cause others to seek success by following in his footsteps, and so he becomes indirectly responsible for all the wearisome failures that result from such attempts. In this sense Mr. Samuel L. Clemens may be said to be indirectly responsible for this and a number of other books published of late years by would-be English humorists. When 'The Innocents Abroad' first appeared, several English critics, entirely unacquainted with its peculiar vein of humor, in good faith and with due solemnity pointed out its defects as an adequate and accurate record of places and people. Since that time, however, English readers have become familiar with the various forms of American humor as exemplified in Mr. Clemens, Bret Harte, Artemus Ward, and others, and one of the results of this familiarity is a crop of books—of which Mr. Jerome's are fair samples—which constantly recall the above-named humorists. But these imitations, while doubtless, as such, sincerely flattering to the originals, cannot truthfully be called successful. The flavor of American humor in them is unmistakable, but the solution or trituration thereof is of the weakest, and a large quantity of current English slang is therefore added to give strength and local color to the whole. What could be more side-splitting, for instance, than the suggestion that something is all "*bally* foolishness"? How exhilarating is this historical observation: "She was nuts on public houses, was England's Virgin Queen"! Mr. Jerome's 'Three Men in a Boat' tells the tale of a week spent in going in a boat from Kingston to Oxford—not a strikingly original subject, by the way—and the author kindly varies the serious business of being humorous by poetic rhapsodies over the beauties of nature, and by a number of references to places of historic interest in the Thames valley. These latter passages smack somewhat of the guide-book, and recall the accounts of the Oxford colleges which a certain undergraduate, who disliked original composition, used to copy out and send in instalments to his venerable and confiding mother in lieu of a weekly letter.

So far, most of the humorists of this new school are adventurous people who like roughing it and camping out, and they evidently regard as irresistibly funny the difficulty of packing their provisions, the mixing of strawberry jam and meat pies, the upsetting of salt over everything, and so forth. It may be that such books will give pleasure to those who go down to the sea in ships, or up the river in boats, because as a rule they are very easily pleased; but the ordinary landsman will inevitably class them as "books one would rather have left unread."

In the same category must be placed Mr. Jerome's 'Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow,' although for somewhat different reasons. A dozen essays on such well worn subjects as "The Weather," "Shyness," "Babies," etc., etc., are here brought together, and, as they present but little claim to originality of ideas or style, it is difficult to see why they should have been inflicted on the community. Their humor has a strong resemblance to that of the previous volume, but it is somewhat less boisterous, and is, moreover, varied by occasional passages of pathos and cynicism. Sometimes, indeed, Mr. Jerome struggles with thoughts that seem almost poetic by comparison with the general dull level of the book; but on these occasions he comes dangerously near to burlesque. In the essay on "Being in Love," for instance, the reader is informed that "love is too pure a light to burn long among the noisome gases that we breathe, but before it is choked out we may use it as a torch to ignite the cosey fire of affection." This is what Thackeray used to call "the hoighth of foine language entoirely," but why should it appear in book form instead of in the literary corner of a country newspaper? *That* is the true resting-place for such gems of thought, and the friends of Mr. Jerome who, according to his preface, induced him to print this book, would have exercised a wiser discretion if they had allowed matters to take their regular course.

The Modern Law of Carriers; or, The Limitations of the Common-Law Liability of Common Carriers under the Law Merchant, Statute, and Special Contracts. By Everett P. Wheeler. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1890.

MR. WHEELER has collected in a compact and useful volume some four thousand cases illustrating the modern limitations imposed upon the liability of common carriers, and has given a concise statement of the law of the subject. One of the first principles impressed in every law school upon the mind of the student is that a common carrier of goods is an insurer, his sole allowable excuse for a loss being that it was caused by the "act of God" or the public enemy. He is taught to admire this as one of those beneficent provisions of the

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common law which illustrate its tender care for the weak and unprotected. It is only when the student is launched upon the sea of every-day business and litigation that he discovers that a very great part of the modern law of carriers has been developed through efforts on their part to escape from the onerous obligations imposed upon them by the common law —in which they have been mainly successful. The limitations upon the duty have become more important than the duty itself. Partly by statute, partly by means of the introduction of exemption clauses in bills of lading (even the receipt given by an express company is now usually made to take the form of a bill of lading, *i. e.*, of an express contract between the carrier and his customer), one limitation after another has been introduced, until we find, in the form adopted recently by the New York Produce Exchange, an agreement that the carrier shall not be liable, among other things, on account of losses caused by perils of the sea, by fire, by barratry, by enemies, pirates, or robbers, by arrest and restraint of princes, rulers, or people, by explosion by bursting of boilers, by breakage of shafts, by latent defect in hull or machinery, by collisions, stranding, or other accidents of navigation (*even when occasioned by the negligence, default, or error in judgment of the pilot, master, mariners, or other servants of the owner*, not resulting, however, in any case from want of diligence by the owners, or by the ship's husband or manager). It is the right to exempt himself from the consequences of the negligence of his own servants that the carrier is mainly fighting for now, and Mr. Wheeler's book is a valuable contribution to the discussions of this subject. The decisions are in conflict. On the one hand, we have numerous State courts which see no reason why the carrier should not exempt himself in this way; on the other hand, other State courts, notably those of New York, and also the Supreme Court of the United States, which insist that it is against the policy of the law that such an extreme exemption should be allowed. Mr. Wheeler is a strong advocate of the most extreme liberty of contract, but he gives the argument on both sides with great fairness.

Perhaps an inquiry into the reason why the voluminous exemptions of modern bills of lading do not produce any of the serious inconveniences that the fathers of the common law would probably have anticipated from them, may throw some light upon the point at issue. It is usually said that the rigid rule of the common law originated in times when transportation was insecure, and the risk of collusion between carriers and pirates or thieves was great. But is not this one of those theories which are handed down from text-writer to text-writer more because they sound as if they stated a reason than because there is really any basis for them? What means have we of comparing the risk of collusion between Dick Turpin and the common carriers (*i. e.*, the owners of stage-coaches) of his day, and between Western "road agents" and Jay Gould or C. P. Huntington in our times? We know nothing about it. The real reason, we take it, why the shipper of to-day cares comparatively little about the old liability of the carrier as an insurer, is that he always insures his freight or cargo elsewhere. In other words, the insurance companies assume the risks which the common law undertook (and very wisely, as there was, in the days when the rule was first laid down, no other insurance) to impose upon the carrier. If this view is correct, and the insurance companies are ready to go on insuring on such bills of lading as Mr. Wheeler approves, it may be that the argument derived from the "policy of the law" is not so impregnable as it has seemed to some judges.

Our space forbids us to review in detail the many interesting points raised by Mr. Wheeler's treatise. There are valuable chapters on the Law Merchant, on procedure under the United States Statutes, the Conflict of Laws, and other technical subjects. Numerous as are the text-books on carriers, we know of no other treatise which covers precisely the same ground. It will be found a useful addition to the learning on a subject of constantly increasing importance.

Journal of Researches, etc. By Charles Darwin. New edition, with illustrations by R. T. Pritchett of places visited and objects described. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

MR. MURRAY'S preface to this new edition of the 'Voyage of the *Beagle*' bears date December, 1889, but makes no allusion to the fiftieth anniversary of the original edition, which has in fact been celebrated by publisher and artist in the beautiful volume now before us. Nor is it wholly accurate to say that "no attempt, however, has hitherto been made to produce an illustrated edition of this valuable work." Such an attempt, in connection with a classified abridgment, was made during Mr. Darwin's lifetime, and with his hearty approval; and for ten years the youth of this country have (as any public library will testify) been enjoying the handsome volume, abounding in cuts, issued by the Messrs. Harper, under the title 'What Mr. Darwin Saw in his Voyage Round the World in the Ship *Beagle*' (New York, 1879). The number of cuts (upwards of 100) is almost identical with that which Mr. Pritchett has got together, and while the subjects of course sometimes agree, there is a wider range in the American volume, which in particular is strong on the side of ethnology. This branch has been decidedly neglected by Mr. Pritchett, whose non-use of the camera is nowhere so keenly felt. Nor can the English edition be much preferred to the American in respect of zoölogy. Portraits, too, are altogether wanting in the former, Mr. Darwin himself being unpictured, whereas the interesting assortment of naturalists, navigators, and rulers in the Harper edition is led off by Kruell's first (and still admirable) engraving of the beardless Darwin of 1854, made expressly for the work which commemorated the fortieth anniversary of the 'Journal.'

We make this comparison not invidiously, but to claim for Americans a proper share of the world's appreciation of the greatest book of travels yet produced, and one of the most charming; whose observations time has done so little to invalidate, and which will be for ever interesting as the unrecognized herald of the doctrine of evolution. The English publisher has been mindful of what was due to it in the matter of typographical openness and elegance, and the artist has left little to be desired in the care he has bestowed on the natural scenery of the voyage. The rarely visited solitary ocean islands, the banks of the Rio Negro, the waters and mountain barriers of the Straits of Magellan, the raised beaches of Patagonia, the Chonos archipelago, the Uspallata Pass, the Keeling atoll, may be singled out for mention as of prime value. At the same time we should have been better pleased if photography had supplemented the pencil wherever it was available, and if wood-engraving had been employed throughout. Such pains and expense must be, perhaps, reserved for the hundredth anniversary edition, when doubtless mere correspondence will suffice to procure, even from the least frequented regions, authentic photographs of everything delineated in this edition, and more. Meanwhile the public is to be congratulated that the *Beagle* renews its Voyage under such favorable auspices.

Delicate Feasting. By Theodore Child. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THIS is a very taking, indeed one may say a very appetizing, book. The eye is pleased at the first glance by the pretty yellow-brown cover with its agreeable decoration in silver, gold, and black; and although the print and paper inside do not quite bear out the cover's promise, still they are not wholly bad.

Every man of middle age is less wise than he ought to be if he is not in some degree a cook, or at the least a critic of cooking. Dietetics are becoming more and more every year a recognized department in medical science, while as a fine art cooking won its undisputed place centuries ago. In literature, indeed, its place never has been challenged. There is the record of much good eating, though too little refined, in the Hebrew sacred books, and in fact in world-literature everywhere. The best novels and the best poetry contain much more than mere allusions to it. Not only in the books of earthlier writers, like Dumas and Thackeray, does the charmed reader find records of feasting, but in Scott's novels and in Milton's verse there are precious passages for him who of such delights can judge. As one may say of biographies, so one may say of books on the table, that there never was one written that is not worth reading. If it does not tend to edification, at least it serves for reproof.

Mr. Child has written a good book. One may dissent from him in some points; one may not like his nonsense about "P. Z. Didsbury," the Dryasdust to whom he dedicates his volume; one may hesitate now and then and doubt if he is right about this or that detail; one may reject with horror what he says about the public use of toothpicks and mouth-bowls; but all these are minor matters. He has a firm grasp of the main principles of cookery. He has an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of food. He gives a few admirable receipts, notably those for a *matelote* and for *court-bouillon*. He has much good and sensible advice as to dinner-giving and dinner service. He abounds in interesting quotation from the literature of his subject, and altogether has made a book "full-worthy on the self shelf to be upset" with the best cookery books, with Kettner's 'Book of the Table,' with Thackeray's 'Memorials of Gormandizing,' and with Prof. Mattieu Williams's admirable 'Chemistry of Cookery.'

A Memory of Edward Thring. By John Huntley Skrine. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

IT appears that we are to wait somewhat longer for a biography of the remarkable educator who refounded Uppingham School, and gave to it a high place among the public schools of England by dint of his energetic and original individuality. Meanwhile, the present volume is a tribute of remembrance by one of his pupils and sub-masters, who was evidently filled with Thring's spirit and moulded by his influence. The volume is curiously mingled of eulogy and reminiscence, and varies between the fiery declamation of a skald and the tender affection of a disciple. The one thing kept before the reader is the figure of Thring himself; and whatever may be thought of him, there can be no complaint that he is not truthfully and

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powerfully portrayed, first as the master among the boys, and afterwards as the man fighting for his own among High Commissioners, Directors, town officials, and all others whom he was compelled to meet with. He was a man who did his own thinking, and reduced the results to explosive epigrams, often worded with a kind of violent felicity. He had a theory of life and duty of a most imperative and energizing sort, and he stamped it upon his boys with all the force he could bring to bear. He was rough in his outward seeming and knotty in inward composition; severe in method and arbitrary in disposition, but thoroughly penetrated by great ends and practical thoughts; with something of the poet also in his madness, a sacred fury coming upon him and expressing itself in rude but genuinely noble ways; an enthusiast, of course, who believed in himself and always contemplated himself as a host militant against the dull, stupid, wrong-headed, and devil-doomed world. So, at least, he is drawn here, in page after page of striking anecdote. After reading, one understands the criticisms of his enemies as plainly as the praise of his "boys"—those who thrived under such vigorous treatment. The volume stimulates interest in Thring's personality, and is an excellent prologue to his promised life by another hand.

Register of the University of Oxford. Vol. II. (1571-1622.) Part IV. Indexes. Edited by Andrew Clark, M. A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889. 8vo, pp. 466.

We have already reviewed this admirable work, in reference to vol. i. (one volume), 1884, and the three preceding bound parts of vol. ii. Nothing can easily be said of an index, except as to its thoroughness, and in the present case too much praise can hardly be given. It is a suitable capstone to the monument raised to the diligence and precision of the editor.

On pp. 36-49 will be found careful tables in regard to the Christian names of some 20,500 graduates, which the editor well terms "more representative of English names than any list yet published." The most used names are:

John	3,826	Henry	908
Thomas	2,777	George	647
William	2,546	Francis	447
Richard	1,691	James	424
Robert	1,222	Nicholas	326
Edward	957	Edmund	298

—a total of over 16,000 names, or 80 per cent. of all. Arthur, Christopher, Hugh, Ralph, Roger, Samuel, and Walter each claim about 200 names, or 1 per cent.

Among the unusual names we find some which have since become favorites, or have been borne by noted men. Alphabetically these are, Aquila 1, Arthur 98, Brian 21, Charles 139, Clement 16, Ferdinando 16, Elihu 1, Frederic 2, Gerard 12, Geoffroy (Jeffrey) 38, Godfrey 8, Herbert 16, Hector 2, Kenelm 7, Lawrence 90, Launcelot 23, Lionel 12, Lewis 78, Martin 44, Michael 103, Marmaduke 18, Miles 24, Patrick 6, Percival 9, Peregrine 5, Reginald 20, Roderic 11, Roland 65, Swithin 3, Theodore 8, Theophilus 19, Tristram 13, Valentine 18, Vincent 15.

There are many names, especially Scriptural ones, not occurring 200 times, and yet not very rare. Then there are family names used as "given" names, and some almost inexplicable. As to double Christian names, six instances are cited, of which four are probably not to be so classed. The other two are Thomas Postumus Hobbie (mentioned in Camden's 'Remains,' p. 49), and Thomas Pope Blunt, in 1573, "in the degree lists given as Pope Blunt, without the Thomas." This Blunt example may therefore fail, as Camden writes, "Two Christian names are rare in England, and I only remember now his Majesty, who was named Charles James, as the Prince, his son, Henry Frederic; and among private men Thomas Maria Wingfield, and Sir Thomas Posthumus Hobby."

As to surnames, it would be impossible to make a selection. Every class in the community is here represented, from the peer to the charity student. Families are often represented in different generations, and certain localities favor special colleges or halls. The whole series will be indispensable in every large library; and we hope a continuation will be made, covering, at least, the remainder of the seventeenth century.

Prominent Incidents in the Life of Dr. John M. Wieting, including his Travels with his Wife round the World. By Mary Elizabeth Wieting. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

A very large part of Mrs. Wieting's book is devoted to an account of her travels round the world with her husband, and to a second journey in which only Europe was included, and only a very insignificant part to a general account of his life and its "prominent incidents." The journey around the world was of nearly a year's duration. It was a splendid opportunity, but, apparently, both Mr. and Mrs. Wieting brought to it little or no preparation on the æsthetic side. The treatment of art matters is singularly unsympathetic and remote, the writer giving us the opinions of the guide-books rather than her own. Dr. Wieting was intensely practical, and his disposition was dominant in what was most enjoyed. We have here a great deal of useful information, which is probably quite as reliable as the guide-books from which it has been studiously gleaned. The second journey was intended to make up the deficiencies of the first. It is more elaborately described than that, but, as it deals with more familiar ground, and brings to it no special gift of apprehension, the description is less interesting. There is a healthy common-sense vigor in Mrs. Wieting's writing, and a flow of animal spirits that keeps us always in good company, and reconciles us to the absence of any genuine literary touch.

In the few pages devoted to Dr. Wieting's life we are left to infer the date of his birth (1817) from a statement, well along, that in 1837 he was twenty years old. The bantling was early cast upon the rocks, the sickness of his father devolving on the boy the support of his parents, and he grew beneath the burden, as so many boys have done in similar circumstances. He studied medicine and began the practice of it, but in 1843 he resolved to enter the lecture field, and there is an intimation that no American lecturer, not even Beecher, reaped so large a pecuniary harvest. His subject was physiology, and his advertising was after the manner of Barnum and other dealers in unparalleled attractions. The text of one of his big posters is given, and it is a model of its kind. As a citizen of Syracuse, N. Y., Dr. Wieting was evidently much esteemed. Under a rough exterior he carried a warm and generous heart. It is evident, between the lines, that it would have been easily possible for any one, painting him as Cromwell wished to be painted, to make a picture of much individuality. The line engraving of his face suggests no fineness in the intellectual or spiritual man, but plenty of rude force. The Wieting Block, in which was Wieting Hall, the scene of many a political gathering, was of his building. Burned in 1856, he built the first theatre and opera-house of Syracuse upon the lots, and when this was burned, in 1881, under great difficulties and embarrassments he built another larger and finer than its predecessor. These were the most "prominent incidents" of his career, and went far to give him his local standing as a man of energy and public spirit.

But altogether the most interesting incident in the volume is one that illustrates his generosity and divination of character. At one of his lectures in Boston he saw in the audience a tall, lank, awkward-looking man, who soon after turned up at a lecture in Philadelphia, made himself known to Dr. Wieting, and requested a loan of $1,000 with which to go to California—it was in gold-fever times—agreeing to send the doctor half his earnings. The latter consented. After a while came $1,000 back, and then in different instalments $9,000 more, whereupon the Doctor cried, Hold! but the stranger wrote that he did not propose to break his bond. Soon, however, he wrote requesting a fresh loan of $20,000. The Doctor's friends protested that the $10,000 was only a decoy, and that if the Doctor sent the $20,000 he would never hear of it again. Nevertheless, he sent the money, and there was an awful pause; but after a time the returns began, and finally mounted up to $50,000, after which the honest man was never heard of more.

By "Sims, the Pirate," spoken of as sailing the seas in the later course of these events, is the Confederate captain, Semmes, intended? The reproductions of photographs which illustrate the travels are a very beautiful and valuable addition to the text.

Freiland: Ein Soziales Zukunftsbild. Von Theodor Hertzka. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot. 1890. Pp. 677.

The writer of this stout volume, after many intellectual wanderings, has reached his goal He began many years ago as a member of the optimistic school to which the Germans apply the epithet, now opprobrious, of *Manchesterthum;* he has gradually drifted away from this point of view, and now appears as the guide to a complete and beatific reorganization of society. The root of all evil, we learn, is overproduction; from which arise protective tariffs, Trusts, combinations, and strikes. "All these are but so many phases of the desperate struggle of every class against the inevitable concomitants of the one phenomenon, so anomalous and yet so real, that the steady advance in the facilities for producing wealth has brought in its train ruin and misery."

So far, we hear the old story. Consumption has not kept pace with production, supply has outrun demand; the poor cannot buy commodities, while the rich will not, but heap investment on investment. This is the sort of reasoning which crops out whenever the complicated machinery of production undergoes a far-reaching change. It appeared in the beginning of the century, when the great inventions were transforming the industrial system, and when Malthus, Say, Sismondi, and the rest of them threshed out the discussion as to overproduction with an ardor which leaves Mr. Hertzka and his fellows little to say that is new. But the remedy which he proposes for the evils that are supposed to flow from this one cause, while it has a family resemblance to the schemes which the enthusiastic followers of Mr. Bellamy are pressing on us, has certain features of its own—if in no other way, in that his experiment is worked out in the heart of Africa. Thither, to the mountain region under the equator, goes a band of colonists. They apply

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the simple remedy (how simple these remedies always are!) discovered by Herr Hertzka. The result is peace, plenty, prosperity, perfect justice, perfect happiness.

The gist of this latest panacea can be put in a few words. The land and the capital belong to the community: so far we seem to be in the familiar domain of Socialism. But this is *Freiland*, and the land and the capital are not managed by the community; they are turned over gratuitously, without rent or interest, to associations of individuals. Every person is free at any time to join or leave any of these associations. The only thing required by the State is absolute publicity. The hateful element of private and business secrecy must go; your association must tell all the world how much it produces, earns, divides. Thus we have perfect competition, and so perfect justice. Within each association—they are organized somewhat on the plan of coöperative production—the members share their produce according to their works (*Leistungen*); which seems to be a simple principle enough, and enables the author to brush away at once all the difficulties of distribution. Around this kernel gather a multitude of details and episodes, from descriptions of African scenery to considerations of the law of marriage in Freiland; from accounts of victorious yet merciful wars with the Abyssinians to conversations with visiting Europeans, who are so rash as to suggest possible difficulties, and, of course, are triumphantly refuted. The innocent fiction of the adventures in Africa no doubt was intended to allure readers; but it has not the spice of reality, and very few, even among those to whom such speculations afford either amusement or stimulus, are likely to read all the pages of 'Freiland.'

On the whole, the sober-minded reader must feel that he is hardly called on to meet seriously the challenge with which the eager author submits his book to "the searching criticism of the professional economists." It requires no great discrimination to see wherein his principles contain "something other than what sound common sense must admit to be self-evident conclusions from justice and from enlightened self-interest."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin, J. Harper's School Speaker. Part I. Arbor Day. Part II. Memorial Day. Harper & Bros.
Belcher, Rev. T. W. Robert Brett (of Stoke Newington); His Life and Work. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Blackall, C. H. Builders' Hardware; a Manual for Architects, Builders, and House Furnishers. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $5.
Boisgilbert, Dr. E. Cæsar's Column: A Story of the 20th Century. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co. $1.25.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Little Saint Elizabeth, and Other Stories. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Cherbuliez, V. Une Gageneure. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Child, T. Delicate Feasting. Harper & Bros.
Crooks, Rev. G. R. Life of Bishop Matthew Simpson. Harper & Bros.
Daniell, M. G. Exercises in Latin Prose Composition. Part II. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Dowden, Prof. E. Lyrical Ballads, reprinted from the first edition of 1798. London: David Nutt.
Drumont, E. La Dernière Bataille. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.
Ellis, H. The New Spirit. London: Geo. Bell & Sons. New York: Scribner & Welford. $2.75.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Problems of To-day. New ed. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Farmer, J. S. Slang and its Analogues, Past and Present: a Dictionary. A to Byz. London.
Fernie, Dr. W. T. Influenza and Common Colds. London: Percival & Co. 2s.
Fitch, J. G. Notes on American Schools and Training Colleges. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Forsyth, Miss. An Awakening. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Four Songs of Life, by Matthew Arnold, J. G. Whittier, W. E. Henley, Lord Tennyson. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 25 cents.
Frederic, H. The Lawton Girl. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Freytag, G. Aus dem Staat Friedrichs des Grossen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Friese, P. C. Semitic Philosophy. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Gardner, Celia E. Seraph—or Mortal? G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Geddes, Prof. P., and Thomson, J. A. The Evolution of Sex. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Girard, J. Recherches sur les Tremblements de Terre. Paris: E. Leroux.
Gooch, F. P. Miss Mordeck's Father. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Harlow, W. B. Songs of Syracuse, and Other Poems. Syracuse, N. Y.: W. B. Harlow.
Henderson, J. C. Thomas Jefferson's Views on Public Education. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Hicks, W. M. Elementary Dynamics of Particles and Solids. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Hoffmann, F. Historische Erzählungen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Huss, Prof. H. C. O. Sesenheim. From Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit.' Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Ibsen, H. The League of Youth; The Pillars of Society; A Doll's House. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Johnston, G. The Poets and Poetry of Chester County, Pa. Leonard, Pa.: Francis C. Pyle. $1.65.
Jones, E. E. C. Elements of Logic as a Science of Propositions. Scribner & Welford. $3.
Kendal, Mrs. Dramatic Opinions. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Kimball, A. L. The Physical Properties of Gases. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, C. Two Years Ago. Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
Lessing, G. E. Minna von Barnhelm. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Light on the Way: Four Favorite Hymns. Marcus Ward & Co.
Lindsley, D. P. Elements of Tachygraphy. 13th ed. Fowler & Wells Co.
Littell's Living Age. Jan.–Mar., 1890. Boston: Littell & Co.
MacQueary, Rev. H. The Evolution of Man and Christianity. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Maupassant, G. de. Pierre and Jean. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
McCormick, S. D. Spoliation; or, The Follies of a Nation. St. Louis: A. R. Fleming & Co.
Medical Annual and Practitioner's Index. E. B. Treat & Co. $2.75.

Walker's Simpler Political Economy

By Francis A. Walker, Ph.D., LL.D. 12mo, $1.25.

PROF. H. I. FOXWELL of *St. John's College, Cambridge, England*, says of it:

"For two classes of readers, the beginners and the busy men who have little time to devote to special studies, it is the best general presentation of economic science known to me. I have not seen and do not expect to see any treatise which, in so simple a manner and so compact a form, gives such an adequate and sensible exposition of just those economic truths which for practical purposes and to practical men are the most essential and fundamental."

PROF F. H. GIDDINGS of *Bryn Mawr College, Pa.*, says:

"To make a clear, simple book on the historical and descriptive features of Political Economy is one thing; to present with the simplicity that comes of perfect clarity of thought the *logical principles* of Political Economy, so that the bright boy of high-school age can not only grasp them, but really make them a part of his mental equipment, is a totally different and immensely difficult thing. And this is what President Walker has beyond question accomplished. The book is in some ways his best achievement as an economist, and this is saying that it is a very noteworthy piece of work."

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